The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 30, 1893.

The Week.

THE trouble into which the President has got over the appointment of one of Senator Voorhees's followers as District Attorney for Indiana calls attention once more to the danger which lurks always in trusting the representations of spoilsmen in matters of this kind. The chances are a hundred to one that they will not tell the truth about their candidate's qualifications, and that behind his candidacy there are bargains and deals and shady political transactions which will be brought to light sooner or later, to the humiliation of everybody concerned in the selection. All the trouble of this kind that President Cleveland has ever had has come from his occasional yielding to the spoilsmen of his party. He has had no trouble from the appointees whom he has put into office either in opposition to the wishes of the spoilsmen or without their knowledge. These have invariably commanded general approval for him at the time of their selection, and have given him no reason to feel ashamed of them, or to make excuses for them, after they have entered upon their duties. The lesson of experience in this matter is so clear that argument upon it is a waste of time.

The *Civil Service Chronicle*, which, we are pleased to observe has been revived after a brief respite, and now has its eagle eye on the spoils politicians, and particularly the bad lot who have their nests in Indiana, considers District Attorney Burke "one of the most vicious men who ever got into public place," applying this term to his political methods. Indiana has suffered perhaps more than any other State in the Union from the ravages of political vermin in her public benevolent institutions. A determined effort was made a few years ago to take these institutions out of politics, so that the helpless inmates should not be made the prey of the ignorant and ruffianly class who were habitually appointed to have charge of them as a reward for other bad conduct at the primaries. This reform was opposed by Burke, who was then a member of the State Senate, and was defeated by his efforts in part. He also opposed the Australian Ballot Bill, and was the only Democrat in the Legislature who voted against it. "Any measure that was for the general benefit," says the *Chronicle*, "could safely count on Burke's opposition." It cannot be supposed that the appointment of such persons helps the Democratic party in Indiana. On the contrary, it damages the party there and everywhere else. The *Chronicle* is very temperate in its comments on this case. It says that the reform element in the Democratic party in Indiana will fight on in spite of Voorhees and Burke.

The lofty tone of President Cleveland's inaugural address, and his unflinching courage in laying his finger upon national evils, especially upon the growth of paternalism and extravagance in government, did not fail to find recognition in Europe. Thoughtful and patriotic Europeans have been cheered by his words in the work of withstanding their own threatening dangers. Far more than his remarks upon the tariff or the entire absence of the Jingo note in his address, do they value his earnest words upon the very fundamentals of society and government. Thus, we read in the *Mémorial Diplomatique* of March 11: "Addressed only to the people of the United States, this discourse sounds across the ocean; Europe, bewildered, anxious, uncertain what principles and what route to adopt for the development of her civilization, can hear this voice which comes to her from the New World and draw inspiration from such an example." Similarly, the Berlin *Nation* of the same date says of the inaugural that, "with its sound political principles, it should receive especial attention in Germany." It especially rejoices at President Cleveland's "impetuous words" about "the unwholesome progeny of paternalism," which, it says, ought to have the careful study of all the German advocates of State Socialism.

As the day approaches when the great "round-up" and deportation of the Chinese in this country is to take place, provided they have not previously complied with the terms of the Geary Law, it is natural that they should be anxious to know what are the President's intentions. The Chinese Minister has telegraphed to San Francisco that Mr. Cleveland has assured him he will do "what is right" in the matter. But this may mean much or little. What is right for the President to do is to enforce the laws of the land. But the Constitution defines treaties with foreign Powers as the supreme law of the land, and if a law passed by Congress is in plain conflict with a treaty, as many good lawyers assert the Geary Law to be, it may be the President's duty to suspend it until the Supreme Court shall have passed upon the question. It is possible that such suspension may be brought about by the United States courts directly, as it is reported that a writ is to be asked for enjoining the enforcement of the law until its constitutionality has been passed upon. That some such course is contemplated, so that the country shall be saved from presenting to the world the extraordinary spectacle of rushing into barbarism in its treatment of inoffensive aliens, and then having its course pronounced illegal in its own courts, would seem to be the least that can be implied in Mr. Cleveland's assurances to the Chinese Minister.

Unfortunately, the record of our dealings with the Chinese for the past few years is not such as to make them credit our good intentions or even our good faith. In the diplomatic correspondence on the subject of the Geary Law, made public last week, there was a most heartless and domineering tone in the language held by our State Department, which reached the limits of insult when the Chinese were gravely assured that our courts were as open to the Chinese as to our own citizens. Nothing like this has been heard since the famous invective of Justice Maule against the inequality of the laws of England, delivered in the guise of a severe rebuke to a poverty-stricken bigamist for not having gone through a divorce suit to rid himself of a bad wife, which would have cost him more pounds than the man had pence, though this, said the ironical Justice, was no excuse, "since it is my duty, as one of her Majesty's Judges, to tell you that the law of England makes no discrimination between rich and poor." Then the Chinese have had strong evidence of our entire disregard of th[illegible], either as human beings or as subjects of a Power with which we are in [illegible] relations, in the proposed Hawaiian treaty. That humane instrument proposed to make by force several thousand Chinese residents of United States territory, and yet to deny them the right of migration, although that right is guaranteed to all Chinese subjects by our treaty with China. In the light of this fact, the simplicity of the *Japan Weekly Mail* is almost pathetic, supposing, as it did when it first heard of the annexation scheme, that "it is not at all probable that the American Government will insist upon extending to Hawaii a system of exclusion opposed alike to American traditions and to Hawaiian material interests."

The *Hawaiian Gazette* of March 7 contains the text of the treaty for annexing the Islands, and in its comments upon the sugar-bounty business shows slight respect for the opinion of some of our able publicists who held that the bounty would not have to be paid to the Hawaiians (with one-half to go to the Sugar Trust) unless Congress so ordered. Says the *Gazette:* "The treaty makes Hawaii American soil, and there is strong ground for holding that the Hawaiian growers of sugar will become entitled to any bounty paid to other American growers as soon as ratifications have been exchanged." So

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we have always maintained. A full-fledged American not entitled to a bounty would be a rare bird. The Hawaiians had rather be dogs and bay the moon than such Americans.

There has been a pause of nearly three weeks in the outflow of our gold to Europe, broken only by the half-million shipment of Tuesday week, described as the fulfilment of an old contract. Preparations have been made, however, for a resumption of the exports, and at best the respite can be only temporary. The cessation of shipments this month was not, indeed, due in any sense to permanent and fundamental causes. A banker who is undertaking to ship gold must sell his bills of exchange, and the disordered money-market of a fortnight ago rendered the negotiation of such bills all but impossible. The supply of bank money in this city available for the purchase either of bankers' bills or of merchants' paper was so reduced by the heavy Western demand that the banks had their hands full caring for their regular depositors, whose claim was naturally first. That this situation is to be permanent nobody for a moment supposes, and the first sign of a returning money supply is greeted, as we have already said, by preparation for renewed gold exports. It has long been a matter of common knowledge that the Austrian Government, in its plans for gold accumulation, has been reckoning deliberately on our own supply of gold. Of the new 4 per cent. resumption loan (about $30,000,000 in amount), one-half has already been sold and the gold delivered. The remainder has within three weeks been subscribed for, and whether the immediate purchasers come from the east or from the west of Europe, the Austrian demand for gold will be equally felt in New York city. It is highly probable, therefore, with exchange on London and Paris already practically at the gold-shipping point, that new and extensive contracts for the export of American gold have already been placed. In one respect the recent check to the outward movement was an incident of no little significance. It shows that an undue restriction of the circulating medium, such as the silver fanatics profess to have discovered, would make itself known by signs that would need no Congressional investigation. The very fact of chronic specie exports is a proof that our money supply is ample for the needs of trade. The trouble is, that international confidence and international credit have, by our reckless silver experiments, been so far impaired that what we are losing to Europe is the very best of our coined money, and what we are getting in its place is the silver fiat-money bundled out of the Treasury printing-offices.

The vicious secrecy which has long marked the conduct of the pension business was again brought out on Saturday in the announcement of an important ruling made last September, but never before published. It was, in effect, a reversal of the practice of the Bureau in regard to paying out "accrued pensions" in certain cases, and providing for the expenses of the "last sickness and burial" of pensioners. Assistant Secretary Bussey made a careful examination of the statutes bearing upon these practices and found them to be without warrant of law. It is estimated that upwards of $2,000,000 had already been paid out in a way now pronounced illegal. This is but a sample of the loose management which secret methods invite. The important decision itself seems to have leaked out by accident. Of course it would never have done to let such a wet blanket drop upon the "soldier vote" during the Presidential campaign, but why it should have been kept back so long after the election is only to be explained by the general love of the Pension Bureau for darkness and mystery.

The failure of the latest attempt to weaken the Ballot Law of Massachusetts is both instructive and encouraging. Taken all in all, the Massachusetts statute is the most thorough-going application of the Australian system which is to be found among the thirty-six laws that have been enacted in as many States in this country. It has been tried now in four important elections, and after each trial there have been complaints that the alphabetical arrangement of its ballot worked injustice to all except the leading candidates. These complaints have invariably come from the machine elements of both parties, but there has never been much evidence that they had strong popular support. Just how much support they had has now been demonstrated by the defeat of the proposition which was made in this year's Legislature to change the form of the ballot from the alphabetical to the party-group arrangement. The action of the Legislature in refusing to make this change shows that there is really no popular dissatisfaction with the law as it stands—that, on the contrary, the people look with disfavor upon all efforts to modify or weaken its provisions.

A Cleveland letter to the *Evening Post* reports a successful experiment in municipal reform, which seems to be so much easier to accomplish everywhere else than in this city. The plan adopted there was not a very novel one. An old system with a very greatly divided responsibility was changed to a new one under which the city government has only six departments, the heads of each being nominated by the Mayor and confirmed by the Council. It will be seen that this change makes the government of the Ohio city similar to our own city government when the Board of Aldermen had the power to pass on the Mayor's nominations. But even this partial concentration of authority has in two years reduced the tax rate 13 per cent., brought down the city debt nearly $100,000, reduced the annual running expenses of the city $25,000, and at the same time given a better government in all the departments. The correspondent, explaining this good result, says:

> "The great gain from the centralizing of power has been due in large part to the popular realization that the election was of much more importance than of old, and that officials could be reached at the polls more easily, and a consequent increase in popular interest both in the caucuses and the election. At the Democratic caucuses held last Friday night, for example, 12,000 votes were cast—the greatest number by far in the history of the city."

It is easy to draw from this statement the oft-repeated lesson that a large part of the bad government of New York city is to be attributed to the indifference of its citizens about municipal affairs. There was never a harder fought campaign for local reform than the Mayoralty campaign of 1890, unconnected as it was with any great State or national election; but the mere fact that "only a Mayor" was at stake, caused the vote to fall off 55,000 as compared with the vote for President two years before, or 65,600 as compared with the election for President two years later. It seems to be a good deal easier to get a large class of our leading citizens to testify to the correctness of a Connolly's accounts, or to defend a Tammany Mayor from all public criticism, than it is to get citizens of the same representative type to vote (not to say work) where the Mayoralty alone is at stake.

It was plain from the start that the reporters would have to be called in to clear up the mystery attending Col. Shepard's death. Two physicians of the highest standing had told what they, on the spot, had made out to be the causes of death, but their official bulletin was miserably deficient in those details which the public is entitled to have in all such cases. It was only what we expected, therefore, when we found Sunday's papers, almost without exception, trying to gratify that "element in human nature," as the Boston *Herald* calls it, which insists on a daily mess of scandal and brutality. One paper, properly resenting Dr. McBurney's unwillingness to give it a spicy column, made up a "statement" of its own and put it into his mouth. Another charged him with "criminal negligence," on the strength of private information derived from a "friend of the family," and we understand that the said friend will soon be called upon to foot the bill for damages which a suit for libel will undoubtedly entail upon the paper that fondly relied upon his word. Still another reporter had a theory that Dr. McBurney was "unnerved" by a "run of bad luck" he had been having with his cases lately, and so could not be expected to act, in an emergency, with the intelligence and promptness which this reporter always has at command in his critical operations.

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It is highly fortunate that the physicians thus barked at are of such established character and skill. Inexperienced men in their situation would be hounded to professional ruin by the improvised doctors who would start up in every well-regulated newspaper office to show them how they had criminally blundered. As it is, we imagine that the hounding will be done by the other side.

Mr. Bourke Cockran, the principal orator at the Home Rule meeting on Sunday, announced in a speech in the canvass of last fall that "Tammany had solved the problem of municipal government," a problem of which he acknowledged the great importance. This being so, he must be of opinion that the first work before the Irish Home-Rulers when they get home rule should be the introduction of the Tammany system into the Irish cities, Dublin, Belfast, Cork, Limerick, and Galway. Why, then, did he not recommend it as a great contribution from the Irish race abroad to the happiness and prosperity of their countrymen at home? To be silent about this great discovery on such an occasion was indeed little short of treason to the cause. Our Irish-American Home-Rulers, in fact, by presenting their solution to the whole British public, would surely disarm even the prejudice of Englishmen. Surely even the political mouths of afflicted Britons would water at the sight of a Tammany Mayor, or Commissioner of Public Works, or a row of Tammany Police Magistrates or Excise Commissioners. Be not bashful or over-modest, Mr. Cockran. Show the hereditary oppressors what you and your colaborers have been doing in exile for the fame of your race.

It is difficult to believe that the English Conservatives are generally well pleased with the Gladstonian bill establishing Parish Councils for the management of parish affairs in the rural districts. Lord Salisbury at least has openly ridiculed the scheme, and, if we remember rightly, Mr. Balfour has done the same thing. The bill occupies a prominent place in the hated and despised "Newcastle programme," and is part of the process of democratization which has produced the state of despondency among the landed gentry described in a recent number of the *Spectator*. The Parish Councils would undoubtedly finish what the County Councils have left untouched of the local dignity and authority of that time-honored English duumvirate, "The Squire and the Parson." It would, too, considerably lower the position of the farmer by the power it would put into the hands of the laborer, between whom and the farmer there prevails a perennial hostility. The English parish is the counterpart, in a rough way, of the New England town, and the Parish Council would represent in a rough way the town meeting; but it would, at first at least, be chosen by a class very inferior in political training to the New England town voters. The parish government has until now been perhaps the most thoroughly ecclesiastical, or one might say the only sacerdotal, bit of government left in Europe since the overthrow of the temporal power in the Papal States, for the chief ruler is the parson. He shares his authority, it is true, to some extent with the churchwardens, but, what with his power as a distributor of charities, and his power over the schools and schoolhouse, and his share in the administration of the poor-law, and his alliance with the squire, his control of the parish may be said to have been supreme.

The Parish Councils will put an end to his reign and to that of the farmer, as the County Councils have put an end to the reign of the squire. That the coming change in both the parish and county governments will disappoint, at first at least, all admirers of English rural life, there can be little question. Nothing better than the old system for the production of a highly cultivated and picturesque landscape, of good roads, of pretty villages, of honestly administered finances, and for surrounding a graded, dignified social hierarchy with reverence, and providing the State with a class of administrators of unequalled integrity and efficiency, has probably ever been seen, at least since the overthrow of the Roman Republic. But, as Bacon has well remarked, the more gentlemen you have in a State, the poorer your private soldiers are. The English agricultural laborer, "Hodge," as he has been derisively called by those who profited by his stupidity, has for two centuries at least been the reproach and shame of English agriculture—a huge, uncomplaining animal, condemned to dig and delve and be coddled during his working years, and die in the workhouse. He is now, after the sleep of ages, going to be made a man of and made to share in the government of the country. He is at last becoming what he never has been, an Englishman. But that, after having escaped from the parson and the squire, he will also escape from the local political "Boss," it is hard to believe. That personage is assuredly lying in wait in the ditches and hedgerows all over England. His day is coming at last.

The last appeal of the Comte de Paris to the French people sounds so like burlesque that it would be quite reasonable to doubt its authenticity. The assertion that "monarchy alone can give France a strong and stable government" has a humorous air, in view of the fact that France has within a hundred years tried five distinct monarchies, with the view of securing this kind of government, with disastrous failure in each case—viz., the Old Monarchy, the First Empire, the Restoration, the Orleanist dynasty, and the Second Empire. Every one of them promised to last for ever and make France happy. The first died on the scaffold and the rest ran away. They all, too, had the benefit of the monarchical tradition, which is now completely dead in France. The present generation in France knows little or nothing about the "monarchical principle." It cannot conceive why the eldest sons of a particular family, in endless succession, should always be wise enough and able enough to give France a strong and stable Government any more than to give France a succession of great poets, or mathematicians, or strategists. Moreover, a king to be really effective as a political remedy needs to be a sacrosanct person. He needs to be what the Romans of the Empire called "divus"—that is, something more than human. But this divinity that doth hedge a king has been long dead in France. Nobody now knows anything about it. Frenchmen do not even pretend to know *anything* about it, as Englishmen do. When, therefore, anybody steps forward and applies, as the Comte de Paris does, in behalf of himself and his son, for a royal place as a sure cure for national disorder and uncertainty, even Royalists laugh in their sleeves. They are under no delusions about royalty. They want a monarchy because it would be pleasanter for them, and give the well-mannered, well-dressed, and well-born people a better chance for the offices; not because "its *sole object would be the public welfare.*"

Political prophets pursue their calling with more seriousness in Spain than we are accustomed to see. One of the great surprises of the late elections in Spain was the success of the Republican party in the city of Madrid. Its nominees received 27,000 votes, as against only 23,000 for the Government candidates. Now the Governor of the province and the Minister of the Interior had committed themselves to the prediction that the Government ticket would poll 30,000 votes and elect all its candidates. When the returns came in on the night of the election, and showed their prophecies to be so wide of the mark, they both resigned their offices out of hand. This is admirable consistency, and is a custom which we ought to adopt without delay. Why not make it a rule that a man in office must either make no prophecies about elections at all, or positively agree to go out of politics if his predictions come false? Suppose such a rule had been in force last fall, what a slaughter there would have been among Western Governors, and how we should have got Foster and Rusk and Wanamaker out of the Cabinet without having to wait till March 4, and the *Tribune* not even keeping up the pretence any longer of being a political organ. It would be manifestly improper to make an *ex-post-facto* application of the rule, but it ought to be put in force in the future, for the terror of political prophets and the relief of a prophet-ridden people.

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TAMMANY AND ULSTER.

As we have said more than once, the chief argument used by the English opponents of Mr. Gladstone's Home-Rule Bill is the argument that the Irish will use all the liberty the bill will leave in their hands for the worst purposes, such as attacks on property, religious persecution, and general oppression of the minority. The weakness of this argument lies in the fact that it might have been used against any written framework of government that ever was made. All constitutions assume the willingness of those who are to live under them to execute them according to their plain intent and meaning. If, for instance, the majority in the United States were to use all the liberty left them by the Federal Constitution to work mischief, the United States as a republic would speedily come to an end. No Constitution could be framed that would suit a community determined to evade it. Therefore the controversy which is ravaging British society to day is really not so much over the merits of the Home-Rule Bill considered as a piece of draftsman's handiwork, as over the character of the Irish for whose use and behoof it is intended.

For our own part, we believe the Conservative fears are, in so far as they are sincere, the product of the anti Irish prejudice which has made the government of Ireland for seven hundred years the great shame of England. We believe the Irish Parliament which Gladstone's bill proposes to create would compare favorably with any other legislative body in the world, barring the House of Commons itself. It would certainly not fall below the level of our Congress or State Legislatures, or the British Colonial Legislatures, or the Parliaments of France or Italy. The English House of Commons stands as yet on a higher plane than any of these, owing to the fact that, through conditions partly social and partly historical, it as yet makes larger drafts on the talent and character of the nation than any other legislative body has done in modern times. But all parties unite in testifying that the Irish members have in no way fallen below the English or Scotch average, in either debating power or business capacity, as shown in committee work. To their absolute purity and sincerity Mr. Balfour, their worst enemy, bore the strongest testimony the other day, as far as his knowledge and belief extended. This testimony is the more valuable because their poverty is notorious, and there could hardly be a better illustration of the ferocity with which English society approaches the Irish question than the fact that this is one of the most frequent of the taunts which the Irish have to support. That their manners are bad is undoubtedly true; but, considering that it is very rare for an English Conservative to address the House on an Irish topic without insulting them, and very rare for a London morning paper to appear without a column or two of criminal accusation, the wonder is that they behave so well, there being so much human nature in Irishmen.

In spite of all this, there is, no doubt, among the Protestant Irishmen of English and Scotch descent in Leinster and Ulster, a deep-seated and, as we see by the accounts from Belfast, almost furious unwillingness to be handed over to a legislature containing a majority of Irish Catholics, in spite of the restrictions and guarantees of the Home-Rule Bill. Most of the Orangemen's threats of civil war we look on as fustian of somewhat the same sort as that called out by the disestablishment of the Irish Church. Should the bill become a law, we have no doubt they will submit, and after a while become reconciled, and that their fears of ill usage and oppression by the Catholic majority will in a few years seem ridiculous even to themselves. But this is mere prophecy.

What is not prophecy, but fact, is, that their fears and opposition are doing more than aught else to-day to stimulate English opposition to the bill. What does most to give substance and strength to this opposition, to give it a practical rather than a sentimental character, is the specimen of government by Irish Catholics which the city of New York has for some years offered to the world. We who live here know very well to what an extent this example is misleading, how far Americans themselves are responsible for giving people like the Tammany leaders a chance to seize the leading municipal offices, and how certain it is that similar results would follow, in any city in the world, from similar supineness, cowardice, submissiveness, and want of civic pride on the part of the intelligent and respectable classes. But foreigners do not know it. English and Irish Anti-Home-Rulers do not want to know it. What they believe is, that the Irish have got possession of one of the leading municipalities of the United States, and have given, and are giving, there a sample of the kind of government which their brethren at home would set up in case they got possession of the Irish Legislature and Executive. This sample they are using, and have long been using, against home rule with deadly effect. It is to day a most powerful weapon in the hands of the Ulster men. It gives bone and sinew to their opposition.

Nothing is more extraordinary in the attitude of the Irish Home-Rulers in this country than their ostrich-like failure to see this. They held a meeting at the Academy of Music on Sunday evening last, "to voice the sentiment of New York in favor of the home-rule measure presented by Mr. Gladstone, and now pending in the British House of Commons." Now whom was this meeting intended to influence? Certainly not the Irish or English friends of the bill. They are convinced already. "Voicing" to them is preaching to the converted. It must be meant to impress the opponents of the measure in England and Ireland—that is, the men who are saying that if England hands them over to the Irish Home-Rulers another Tammany will be set up in Dublin. We must not suppose that they do not know what Tammany rule is. They know all about it, and in truth exaggerate its evils. They think its sway much more potent than it is, owing to their ignorance about our constitutional restrictions. But they are aware that this city is ruled arbitrarily and corruptly by a small band of illiterate Irish Catholics, who have not for years followed any calling but office-holding, and are growing rich on small salaries; that one of them who has no public place at all keeps an office in which he orders legislation by telegraph from the Legislature, and prescribes peremptorily who shall fill the various municipal offices, and sells judicial nominations for cash down; that they have filled the bench of police magistrates with ignorant men who are friends of the criminal classes, and some of them men of bad character themselves; that though they profess to clean the streets, and procure an enormous annual appropriation for that purpose, the money disappears, but the dirt does not; that even in a time of pestilence they put an incompetent man, one of their own relatives, in the Health Office, and set the remonstrances of scientific bodies like the Academy of Medicine, and great commercial bodies like the Chamber of Commerce, at defiance.

Does any rational man suppose their "voicing" could produce the smallest effect in reconciling the Ulster men, or any class of Irishmen who now oppose home rule, and are entreating England not to abandon them to the prospect opened up by the Gladstone Bill? There is no part of the United Kingdom which, both Catholic and Protestant, has furnished more striking examples of capacity for honorable public service in every field of statecraft, the army, the bar, the bench, the civil service, at home and abroad, than Ireland. There is not a man among those who have thus reflected credit on their country to whom the performances of this Tammany gang in New York are not an awful shame and disgrace. We here who have seen New York pass gradually, little by little, under Tammany rule, do not know how it affects people who stand outside of it or see it from a distance; therefore, we find some difficulty in understanding how an Ulster man can talk of fighting sooner than submit to the Redmonds, and Dillons, and McCarthys, and Sextons, and Healys. But the explanation is very simple. In submitting to them he thinks he would before very long have to submit to a lot of Gilroys, Crokers, Barney Martins, Dalys, and Scannels, and that he would be treated in Belfast and Dublin to a police bench filled with "Paddy" Divers, "Fatty" Walshes, Kochs, Gradys, and the like. There is probably no civilized man, outside our own country, who, having this prospect offered to him as some-

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thing threatening, but avoidable by fighting, would not choose to fight. This is the solemn truth of the situation, and it behooves Irishmen in this city who care for the real fame and welfare of their native land to take it to heart.

POSSIBILITIES OF A PANAMA CANAL.

THE word Panama now suggests so universally a huge scandal that its association with an actual canal across an actual isthmus seems only a figure of speech. Yet it would be a mistake to suppose that the project is as yet definitively given up. The Government of Colombia has granted several extensions of the time within which work under the new charter must be begun, and is only now reported to have made a still further extension. In France there is no lack of schemes for reviving the enterprise, either in the hands of the old company or under the management of a new corporation, backed by fresh capital secured from private investors or from the State. A discussion of the whole question from the pen of M. de Molinari appears in the February number of the *Journal des Économistes*, which deserves consideration as well for its tenor as for its author's high standing.

He does not take a very hopeful view of the prospect of resumption of work on the canal, though his article is an argument in favor of it. According to him, there are two powerful reasons why the great enterprise should not now be allowed to fail. The first is, that something should be done to prevent the complete loss of the $250,000,000 already put into the scheme by French investors. The second is, that "the moral injury which the positive abandonment of the enterprise would cause France" must be, if possible, averted. This last consideration is evidently the weightiest in his mind, and he dwells upon it. The Panama Canal is an affair of national interest. If it results in a complete fiasco, there is an end for a long time of French prestige in America. "The loss of the battle of the Isthmus would be equivalent, for us, to an economic Sedan." French capital and commerce would be driven out of all South America. "That is why I cannot too often affirm," says M. de Molinari at the very close of his article, "that the battle of the Isthmus *must* be won."

How it is to be won he gives his ideas, but it must be said that his argument in favor of going on with the canal is really a conclusive proof that the canal cannot be gone on with. If what he urges is the best that can be said in favor of continuing work on the canal as a simple business undertaking, then it is certain that the canal will never be dug as a piece of business. He gives a sketch of the affair from the first, beginning with the famous "International Congress for the Study of the Interoceanic Canal," held in Paris in 1875. That scientific body, through its committee of experts, estimated the total cost of a sea-level canal at $240,000,000, and of a canal with locks at $114,000,000. Against this have to be put the actual sums paid out, according to the report of M. Flory to the French courts, amounting to $290,900,000. For this vast outlay, excavations variously estimated at from one-half to two-thirds of the total that would be required to make a canal with locks had been made by the spring of 1889, though it is admitted by the most sanguine that the effects of the climate and of floods have, in the four years since work was dropped, undone a large part of it.

M. de Molinari practically admits that a fresh start will have to be made, and he estimates that $180,000,000 will still be needed to complete the canal, even adhering to the plan of using locks. This estimate he thinks a generous one, sufficient to meet all contingencies; yet we do not observe that he makes any allowance for the laying of the Monroe Doctrine again. But, taking M de Molinari's figures as they are, the question arises, Where is the money to come from? The small investors are a sucked orange, it is clear, and, even if they still had savings in reserve, would never put them into anything with the Panama label on it. It is only on condition, concludes M. de Molinari, that the "notabilities of the business world, the great bankers and capitalists," go into the scheme that there is any chance of getting the financial backing necessary.

If this is true, there is an end of the business. It is precisely because those great financiers could not be induced to touch Lesseps's original plan that he had to get up all his popular subscriptions and his lottery, and bribe his way right and left. Why should the project be any more attractive to them now? They would have to start out with the burden of some recognition of the rights of the existing shareholders—M. de Molinari suggests 25 per cent. of the face value of their holdings. But if this is all the original investors are to get out of the wreck, the argument that the Canal must be continued in order to prevent them from great losses at once loses its value. With the best face that can be put upon the matter, they will lose three-quarters of all that they put into the enterprise; and what with the necessity of any succeeding corporation making some allowance for their antecedent legal and charter rights, and with the fearful example of their losses to deter other investors, it is certain that capitalists will be as shy in rising to the Panama bait as the small investor who has suffered most from the hook.

It is really this view of the situation which has led many Frenchmen to maintain that there is no hope for the canal except in governmental aid. They take all M. de Molinari's arguments on the score of national prestige and glory and his battle-of-the-Isthmus talk, and convert them into an appeal to the State to take up and finish what they declare, with him, to be a "national enterprise." He is prevented from joining in this cry by his economic and social principles. No stouter defender of individual initiative and opponent of State Socialism can be found in France. Yet it is clear that he is playing right into the hands of the believers in paternal government by his arguments in favor of going on with the canal. After it is proved that private capital cannot be had, how can he withstand their inference that, on his own showing, it is a case for granting State aid to a work of national interest? This is what the Panama Canal has come to after all these years, and it is what the Nicaragua Canal comes to almost at the beginning. Yet one has but to consider the manner of spending vast sums of public money, now almost the rule under popular government, to see that for a government to take up the work of building the Panama Canal or the Nicaragua Canal would lead to an "economic Sedan" much more disastrous than the one M. de Molinari laments.

THE KILT IN DANGER.

THERE was an interesting debate in the English House of Commons, a few days ago, touching what is probably, next to the Roman toga, the most famous article of clothing that has ever been worn by man. It arose out of an ill-conceived plan, now of nearly a year's standing, to consolidate the kilted regiment, known as the Seventy-ninth, or "Cameronian Highlanders," with the Scots Grenadier Guards, a regiment which has nothing Scotch about it beyond the fact that Scott was the name of its first Colonel. This plan was no sooner noised abroad than it excited in Scotland the deepest indignation, being considered a deliberate attempt to blot from existence one of the renowned Highland regiments which, in kilt and tartan, have under the British flag filled the world with Scottish glory. There is, in truth, no quarter of the globe in which the Highland regiments have not distinguished themselves, and of recent years they have been more than once selected, as in Egypt and South Africa, for service of more than usual danger and difficulty.

It is now nearly a century and a half since these regiments were raised, and for fully a century they were, if not Highland, really Scotch regiments. By a providential dispensation, as the supply of real Highlanders began to run low, either through emigration or dislike of soldiering, the Lowlanders began to feel themselves Highlanders under the magic influence of Scott's novels. Those only who remember the account which Macaulay gives of the loathing with which the Lowland Scotch in the eighteenth century looked on the Highland garb, and Highland manners and customs, will be able to appreciate the force of the spell by which Scott succeeded, early in the nine-

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teenth century, in disposing nearly every Scotchman to the notion that the kilt, the tartan, the philabeg, and blue bonnet were his original national raiment, in which he looked his best, and which nothing but the advance of a gross and material civilization compelled him to lay aside. The fancy for the Highlands with which the Queen and Prince Albert were seized in their early married life completed the conquest which the Wizard of the North had begun, and converted nearly all male Scots into true Highlanders to whom trousers or "breeks" were a genuine encumbrance, and who with difficulty restrained themselves from cattle-lifting. Every man who came near Balmoral Castle or aspired to deer-stalking, grouse-shooting, and salmon-killing, put on the kilt and tried to get his legs browned, as the only costume for a *persona grata*. The Queen was so taken with the dress that she even insisted on putting her German sons-in-law and grandsons-in-law into it in the summer and autumn, regardless of the danger to their *hochgeboren* knees.

When we say "nearly all male Scots," we doubtless exaggerate. As a matter of fact, the kilt mania has been for the most part confined to sporting Lowlanders, and to persons about the Court, and to the gillies, game-keepers, and the like in the employ of the tenants of the moors and deer forests, and lessees of the salmon rivers. Mr. Campbell-Bannerman, the English Secretary at War, himself a Scotchman, speaking on the question of the Cameronian Highlanders the other day in the House of Commons, said:

"He would not go so far as an honorable and gallant gentleman, a Scotchman, and a member of a great clan family, who, speaking on this subject ten years ago, said that for his part he had never yet seen in Scotland a Scotchman wearing a kilt unless he was paid to do so by an Englishman. [Laughter.] He fully admitted, too, the picturesqueness and the military effectiveness of the Highland dress; but, after all, when they were told that not a tartan must be meddled with, one naturally began to inquire what those tartans were, and it was difficult to determine the question. The Cameron Highlanders themselves wore a spurious Macdonald tartan and not a Cameron tartan at all. [Laughter.] This spurious enthusiasm in favor of the tartan and the kilt, although it was very vivid and active in the large towns, did not exist to the same extent in the glens of the Highlands. It was small among the crofters and the farmers, but it was very great among the shooting tenants and the gillies."

The military history of the kilt has been much the same as its civil history. The popular notion is, and always has been, that the Highland or kilted regiments—nine battalions in all—were really entirely, or almost entirely, composed, if not of Highlanders, at least of Scotchmen. For a great many years this has been far from being true. For fully fifty years it has been found impossible to recruit these regiments in Scotland. For more than that period, as the prosperity of the country has increased and the taste for soldiering in Scotland has declined, it has been found necessary to admit Irishmen and Englishmen very freely to wear the kilt, and pass themselves off in tartans as McKenzies or MacDonalds, Rollos, Murrays, or Keiths. The history of this crackest of them all, the Cameronian Highlanders' regiment, whose fate is now under discussion, well illustrates the passage of the kilt to other legs than Scotia's. The regiment, as is well known, was raised in the last century by Cameron of Lochiel, and was a famous fighting corps in the French wars which closed at Waterloo. Scott's apostrophe, in his "Vision of Don Roderick," on seeing them land in Spain,

"And O, loved warriors of the minstrel's land,
Yonder your bonnets nod, your tartans wave,"

is well known, and covered the Cameronians. Still better known is Byron's splendid tribute apropos of the conduct of the regiment at Waterloo:

"And wild and high the 'Cameron's Gathering' rose,
The war-note of Lochiel, which Albyn's hills
Have heard, and heard, too, have her Saxon foes."

But it is long since the "Evans" and "Donalds" have made much figure in the corps. It is said that when the present Cameron of Lochiel was dining at the regimental mess a few years ago, the talk turned on the history of the regiment, and inquiry was made then and there as to the number of "Cameronians"—that is, men born on the Cameron estates—it contained. It was found, alas! that there was only one, and he was the son of an evicted tenant—evicted, doubtless, to make room for the deer, which now get a living off the soil that once fed the dauntless kilted lines which stood behind Wolf at Quebec and followed Wellington through Spain. The present condition of the regiment, as described by Mr. Campbell-Bannerman, is very melancholy. Between August, 1891, and November, 1892, 936 recruits had to be raised for it. Of these only 360 could be obtained in all Scotland. So they had to pick up the remaining 576 in England, and they got them, of all places in the world, in East London. So that the Cameronians are now in the main Cockneys of the purest type, good fighting men no doubt, but as kilted Highlanders unmitigated frauds; Shooter's Hill or Hampstead Heath being probably the only places in the nature of mountain or moor of which they have had any experience.

THE GREAT DICTIONARY.

EVERY cultivated person should be interested in the progress of the 'New English Dictionary,' edited by Dr. J. H. H. Murray, Vice-President, and Mr. Henry Bradley, President, of the Philological Society. Among subscription-books—that is, books necessarily issued in parts at greater or less intervals—it is surpassed by none in intrinsic worth or in the ease with which the infrequent payments can be borne. Unlike cyclopædias, it can never become completely antiquated, and time will affect it mainly in the particular of neologisms; for, as its illustrations of usage are marshalled in chronological order, the history of each word or meaning may be added to but cannot be detracted from—and we cannot foresee the day when a supplement will be undertaken. The vocabulary of the language is of course ever extending, and new light is certain to be thrown on etymologies now obscure or erroneously determined; but this dictionary must always remain the point of departure for the English lexicographer, and the first appeal in doubtful and disputed matters.

Too few of those who ought to be informed are aware that one volume, comprising the letters A and B, is already finished; and that parts of C and of E—that is, of volumes ii. and iii.—have been issued. The latest report of progress is just a year old, having but now been published as an appendix to the Philological Society's Transactions. On March 4, 1892, Dr. Murray could say of the letter C that, when it was started, the material for it in his Scriptorium filled 320 pigeon-holes six inches wide, containing a pile of slips 160 feet high. "We still," he said, at that date, "have twenty feet thick of this to work through," and perhaps an even larger proportion of the letter—a fifth instead of an eighth. These figures will give some idea of the colossal nature of the task, though it should be remembered that the first three letters of the alphabet are excessively full. And lest any one despair of ever seeing the Dictionary finished, the Report shows that the sub-editors and re-sub-editors, who are scrupulously named and generously praised by Dr. Murray, are engaged all along the line. "Reading" is still going on for the Dictionary, and in 1891 not less than 30,000 quotations were received. From this side of the water, contributions have been made from the beginning, and in one case mentioned by Dr. Murray, liberally; but to an American scholar domiciled in England both Mr. Bradley and Dr. Murray make the highest acknowledgment accorded to any single person. Says the latter, of this volunteer:

"Time would fail me to tell of the splendid assistance rendered to the Dictionary by Dr. Fitzedward Hall, who devotes nearly his whole day to reading the proofs of both volumes [Dr. Murray's and Mr. Bradley's], and to supplementing, correcting, and increasing the quotations from his own exhaustless stores. When the Dictionary is finished, no one man will have contributed to its illustrative wealth so much as Fitzedward Hall. Those who know his books, know the enormous wealth of quotation which he brings to bear upon every point of English literary usage; but my admiration is, if possible, increased when I see how he can cap and put the cope-stone on the collections of over 1,500 readers."

It is only in England, apparently, that women are taking a share in this international enterprise, and there the number is noticeably large, and Dr. Murray's tribute to them noticeably cordial.

Mr. Bradley has found, in dealing with the letter E, that it exceptionally abounds in words belonging to science and philosophy, and in "classical derivatives which, although they may be more or less fre-

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quent in literature, are so seldom pronounced that there exists no orthoepical usage with regard to them." Among the as many as four or five different pronunciations often supported by reputable dictionaries he concludes that the best is that "which most effectually and promptly suggests to the mind the written form of the word." His experience with the constantly recurring difficulties of this kind has convinced him, he says, that the advocates of phonetic spelling greatly underrate the force of the objections to their reform. "By long habit certain groups of printed letters have acquired for us an ideographic value, so that to every educated adult the act of reading is partially, what to a deaf-mute it is altogether, a direct translation of printed symbols into thoughts without any intermediate translation into sound." In consequence of this, "most practised readers are able to take in at a glance the drift of a whole octavo page." Mr. Bradley contends that the introduction of a new system of spelling would at first render it necessary "to translate every word into sound before we can understand it," with an obvious enormous increase in the time spent on reading, especially for persons past middle age, to whom the change would mean a considerable loss of working power for the rest of their natural lives.

He admits that the objection to phonetic spelling on the ground of its obscuring the etymology is forcibly met by showing that "our traditional spelling is often positively misleading as a guide to etymology"; and the reply would be conclusive if the language consisted only of colloquial words. But the great body of famous English writers, from More and Spenser down, have been classically educated, and have been accustomed to presume on a like education in their hearers. Nearly all of these "have habitually used words in senses or shades of meaning which are not based on any existing English usage, but which are understood as a matter of course by readers who know Latin and Greek." Hence a large proportion of our classically derived words "can be understood with precision and used with unfailing correctness only by those who are acquainted with their etymology"; and our English vocabulary "includes an enormous number of words of which the written form has an ideographic value, due *not* to its being familiar to the eye as occurring in English books, but to the fact that it reminds us of the spelling of certain words in a foreign language. These words were originally formed as sequences of alphabetic letters, not as sequences of sounds." "If," continues Mr. Bradley, "phonetic spelling were adopted, we should, in reading, often find it necessary first to render the written word into sound, and then to render the sound into the old spelling in order to apprehend the meaning by the light of the etymology." We might as well attempt to alter the pronunciation of colloquial words to make it conform to the spelling. "To do either of these things would really be disfiguring an original to make it accord with an imperfect copy of itself—much as if some one were to alter a text in the Hebrew Bible because the sense of the English version was different."

There is much wisdom, too, in Mr. Bradley's closing remarks conceding the advantage of introducing many small phonetic changes "in the orthography of such words as are really addressed primarily to the ear":

> "But it is highly important that the process should be gradual, and the reformers ought not to *begin* by abolishing the useful distinctions that have become established in the spelling of such pairs of homophones as *whole, hole.* The number of such cases is not large enough to add very much to the learner's difficulties. And there is no abstract reason why written English should be condemned to share all the imperfections of spoken English. We all recognize the advantage of writing proper names with initial capitals, though that contrivance is purely ideographic."

A NEW DEPARTURE.

London, March 13, 1893.

Great Britain as a whole presents a spectacle of commercial and manufacturing solidarity and prosperity such as the world has never before seen. The industrial has been gradually absorbing the agricultural population, and the former is now out of all proportion larger than that of other countries. From industrial progress arose the necessity for free trade, which still further advanced industrial progress. The importance and political power of the workers have increased year by year, and have not been counterbalanced as elsewhere by a corresponding growth in an independent agricultural interest and by the maintenance of a distinct middle class. The agricultural interest has been drained, and the middle class has, according to the nature of British society, tended towards the aristocracy. The centralized strength of the executive is so predominant that no one class need fear actual violence or prolonged intimidation from any other. There have been none of those object-lessons afforded in other countries on the possible dangers of unsound economic industrial theories. The aristocratic classes, apparently far removed from the consequences of industrial changes as compared to those relating to land, find their power gradually waning. Their only hope lies in conciliating the industrial class. Add to these causes the increase of intelligence, the quickening of the moral faculties, and the growing idea that Christianity ought to be practical, and unwonted legislative results might be expected. Such results are appearing, and it is impossible to foresee the issue. An age which was early taught to regard the 'Wealth of Nations' as gospel, which later relied upon the writings of Mill, and in which the works of Spencer circulate more widely than those of any other philosopher, is now apparently abandoning the old teachings of political economy and preparing to follow those most wayward guides, the feelings.

This may be all for the best. If the mass of human comfort and happiness and elevation in these islands is to be increased, we should all have reason for congratulation. But the change is to many such an uprooting of previous tenets as to the laws which in the main direct the progress of humanity, that they may be pardoned if they, even while drawn along in the current, do not feel altogether confident as to consequences. Thoughtful persons, especially those of advanced years, reviewing their own industrial life, may not easily picture what it might have been if shaped by the theories now sought to be applied. In no direction is the change of sentiment more strikingly shown than in the present attitude of British society towards trades-unionism. Formerly such combinations were regarded as unsound, tending to encourage the careless and idle at the expense of the intelligent and industrious, and to erect unnatural barriers round particular trades to the detriment of men seeking employment. Trades-unionism is now generally spoken of as beneficial. Attention has latterly been drawn to certain passages in Government school-books prepared by Archbishop Whately, in which trades-unionism is condemned. These passages are to be disallowed or expunged. Trades-unionism triumphed in the dockers' strike. That a certain number of men have by that strike largely benefited is now acknowledged; but it is also acknowledged that it brought widespread and acute misery among large classes who formerly lived on casual employment as dock laborers. It is urged that if combination has injured the trade of London, it has at least benefited workmen at other ports. The inexhaustibleness of the wages fund is being taken for granted—the duty of providing work for the unemployed accepted.

Nowhere is the change of sentiment regarding economic theories as to wages more strikingly shown than in Parliament, which in Great Britain so faithfully mirrors the views of the country upon all questions. Until of late years it was understood that competition regulated wages in Government as in other works. In February, 1891, through Mr. Sidney Buxton, now Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs, descendant of the well-known Sir Thomas Fowell Buxton, was passed a resolution which affects all Government contracts and practically the contracts of all local authorities throughout the kingdom. The First Commissioner of Works, then the Right Hon. David Plunket, Member for Dublin University, still a close borough unaffected by popular sympathies, had inserted in documents to be signed by contractors the clause:

> "The rates of wages which I propose to pay to the men on day work under this contract are shown in the accompanying schedule, and in my opinion represent the rates of wages generally accepted as current in each trade to competent workmen."

To this Mr. Buxton moved as an amendment:

> "That clauses be inserted in all Government contracts, requiring that the contractor shall, under penalty, observe the recognized customs and conditions as to the rates of wages and working hours that prevail in each particular trade, and that the contractor should, under penalty, be prohibited from subletting any portion of his contract, except where the department concerned specifically allows the subletting of such special portions of the work as would not be produced or carried out by the contractor in the ordinary course of his business."

Considerable discussion ensued, modifications were made, and the following was passed unanimously:

> "That, in the opinion of the House, it is the duty of the Government, in all Government contracts, to make provision against the evils which have recently been disclosed before the House of Lords Sweating Committee, and to insert such conditions as may prevent the abuses arising from subletting, and make

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every effort to secure the payment of the rate of wages generally accepted as current for a competent workman in his trade."

Seldom has a resolution likely to be so far-reaching in its consequences been passed so easily and with so little comment. Since then, attention is constantly being drawn in the House to infringements by local authorities on the spirit of this resolution, often by questions embodying the implication that the resolution carried with it an injunction to employ only men working in accordance with the rules of trades-unionism. These implications were passed unchallenged until a few days ago, when the Secretary to the Treasury disclaimed any obligation except with regard to wages. It will be interesting to note how long the labor party will rest satisfied with this definition.

A debate last Monday has still further strengthened the assumption of the Labor party. The navy estimates came up for discussion, and Sir John Gorst, as spokesman of the Conservative party, playing the rôle of the true friend of the workingman, in a long speech moved :

"That, in the opinion of this House, no person should, in her Majesty's naval establishments, be engaged at wages insufficient for a proper maintenance; and that the conditions of labor as regards hours, wages, insurance against accident, provision for old age, etc., should be such as to afford an example to private employers throughout the country."

The Secretary at War replied that while he was unable to accept the wording of the resolution, Government, "not being able to close their eyes to the change which had of recent years come over public opinion in this matter," had "*ceased to believe in competition wages*," and would act accordingly. This was accepted by John Burns and the Labor party as even more satisfactory than any specific resolution. In this declaration by a Cabinet Minister we have reached the culmination so far of the acknowledgment of the labor claims. Strange developments may be expected. True, these resolutions concern only Government contractors. Ordinary traders, to make a living, must conduct their business according to competitive rules. Many of them have no doubt much to learn as to the criminality of practices tending to the demoralization and ill-health of those they employ; others are learning that shorter hours and higher pay by no means imply increased cost of production. But every effort will be made by the trades-unions to apply the rules to private trade, and, where this cannot be effected, it will be more and more demanded that Government should fulfil the part of public provider and employer. It may again be found easier to extract extreme concessions from the Conservatives than from the Liberals. The Conservatives are at present irresponsible, smarting under recent defeat, and thirsting for a return to power, and are further removed than the Liberals from the immediate consequences of concession. They have more to fear from concessions to tenants and agricultural laborers than to handicraft workmen. There is not, except in Ireland, any large class of small proprietors whose direct interests are opposed to those of the manufacturing classes, and in Ireland such small proprietors are for the present, in consequence of the opposition of the landlords, thrown more and more into the arms of the Labor democracy. John Burns and Havelock Wilson, the foremost exponents of "labor" in the House, are men of unquestionable ability and of transparent sincerity and honesty of purpose.

It is to the advantage of all parties alike to conciliate the labor interests, and let us hope that all parties are moved less by party considerations than by a genuine desire to carry out the precepts of Christianity and benefit the masses. Knowing the misery and degradation of vast multitudes of their fellow-countrymen, many are prepared to try almost any experiment and to suppress where they cannot forget preconceived economic convictions. It may in the future appear remarkable that an epoch which saw society rent concerning the home-rule measure, involving no departure from already recognized principles of government, saw abandoned by almost universal consent and with little comment economic principles hitherto regarded as the basis of industrial security and progress. D. B.

GONCOURT'S LA GUIMARD.

PARIS, March 16, 1893.

IT has always been a surprise to me that Goncourt should have cut his literary life in two. You would hardly think that the amateur, the lover of the delicate art of the eighteenth century, of the art of China and Japan, could be the same man as the author of 'Germinie Lacerteux' and so many other realistic works. In some senses Goncourt is intensely modern; in others he belongs entirely to the past, and to the most artificial part of the past. Goncourt has drawn from their semi-obscurity the artists of the latter part of the eighteenth century, the illustrators of the books of Dorat and others, the engravers—such men as Eisen, Fragonard, Lavreince, Saint-Aubin, Moreau le Jeune, etc. The Revolutionary school of David had revived the Greek and Roman art, the art of republics; and the conventional, refined, and too feminine art of the eighteenth century had fallen into complete contempt and oblivion when the Goncourts began their collections in the bric-à-brac shops of Paris, and rediscovered the school which had preceded the Revolution.

Why did they not shut themselves up, like so many other amateurs, in the little world which they formed for themselves? Why did they not live only in the past? There was in them a sort of curious dualism. They came to the front of the realistic school, and found their literary documents in life; they lived in modern Paris, not only in its drawing-rooms, but in its studios, its garrets, its barracks, its dancing and singing-halls, its hospitals. At times, however, it seems as if Goncourt wants a relief, as if modern life appeared too coarse and hateful; he has nostalgia of the past, of the Epicurean time of which Talleyrand said: "Those who have not lived a few years before the French Revolution do not know what pleasure it is to live." Goncourt, when he is in that mood, works at some new volume of his 'Actrices du 18e Siècle'—a curious series, which is devoted to Mlle. Lecouvreur, Mlle. Clairon, Sophie Arnould, Mme. Saint-Huberty, Camargo, La Guimard, Mlle. Contat, Mme. Favart. Four volumes only have appeared: Sophie Arnould, Mme. Saint-Huberty, Clairon, La Guimard.

La Guimard is the latest. Its preface is short and is thus conceived :

"One day, in the 18th century, people asked themselves, 'Why do all the dancers succeed in *galanterie* and arrive at the Opéra in a *gilded car*, and why do so few singers make large fortunes?' And probably some allusion was made to the fortune of the dancer whose history I am writing, to the luxury of this *impure*, greater than that of the courtesans of antiquity, Rhodope and Lais, of this *impure* whose hôtel cost as much as a pyramid, and whose theatre in town and country absorbed for the pleasures of her social set the best actors of the three theatres of Paris. And each gave in turn a reason, and when the question was put to D'Alembert, the witty geometer said: 'It is a necessary consequence of the laws of motion.' Things are changed in our time and almost reversed; the great fortunes are made by the great singers, such as Patti, Alboni, Nilsson, etc., and we hear but little of the fortunes made by dancers. 'La Guimard' (such is the name always given to Mlle. Guimard) lived at a time when Terpsichore was still in the ascendant."

Marie Madeleine Guimard was born on the 27th of December, 1743. She was the daughter of an inspector of the manufacture of cloth at Voiron (in Dauphiny) and of Marie Anne Bernard. She was a natural daughter, and was legitimized only in 1745. Under the patronage of M. d'Harmoncourt and of President de Saint-Lubin, she was admitted at the age of sixteen to the corps de ballet of the Comédie-Française. Her first lover seems to have been an actor called Léger. Théveneau de Morande, in his famous pamphlet called 'Le Gazetier Cuirassé,' says, a few years afterwards: "Of all the women who dance in opera, Mlle. Guimard is the only one who did not begin with a *laquais*, a soldier, or a hairdresser; she owes to the dancer Léger her first lessons as well as a child, who was born in a garret, in midwinter, without a fire, without any *courte-pointe* of lace." Readers of the 'Petites Cardinal' will not be surprised that Mme. Guimard, the mother, did not much favor the dancer L'ger; she found a more useful friend for her daughter in a financier, and, under his protection, the Guimard entered in 1761 the corps de ballet of the Opéra. The discipline and organization of the corps de ballet is even now very nearly what it was in those times: the corps is like a regiment; the dancers form several classes; promotion is difficult; the work is very hard, and the salary is very small. Guimard was noticed at once; she attracted the attention of Count Butomlin, Ambassador of Russia, of Comte de Rochefort, who gave her a diamond necklace of great value; but she formed a more durable liaison with a man who has left a name in the literary society of the eighteenth century. M. de la Borde was first "valet-de-chambre ordinaire" of the King, governor of the Louvre. He published a 'Choix de Chansons,' in four volumes, which is the finest illustrated work of the last century; the engravings by Moreau le Jeune in the first volume are the best specimens of a delicate art which has not yet been surpassed. It is a great pity that Moreau le Jeune did not illustrate the three last volumes; their illustrations were confided to good artists, but have not the exquisite beauty of Moreau's. (The Duc d'Aumale possesses in his collections a copy of De la Borde's 'Chansons' in vellum, with all the original drawings; it is the copy made for La Borde himself.)

La Borde was a man of the world. He was amiable and intelligent, and Voltaire said of him:

"Avec tous les talents le destin l'a fait naître;
Il fait tous les plaisirs de la société."

He became the protector *en titre* of the Guimard, who gave him a daughter in April, 1763. Guimard became rapidly a favorite of the Paris public and of the Court. "At that time," says Goncourt, "there was a Sultan at the Opéra whose box was a harem, always full of old dancers, pensioned by him, of dancers *seules, en double, figurantes, surnuméraires* [these were the names given to the various divisions of the corps de ballet]. This Sultan was the Marshal Prince de Soubise." Moreau le Jeune has represented Soubise in the magnificent engraving called "La petite Loge" in

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the 'Monument du Costume,' a work which is really a monument of the eighteenth century, of its manners and graces and morality. In this "petite Loge" you see a mother—a true or pretended mother—presenting to Soubise, sitting in his chair, a young débutante.

In 1768 we find Guimard receiving an allowance of 2,000 *écus* per month from Soubise, and living in a style which had never been equalled by any dancer. She received money in both hands, as La Borde had continued his relations with her, and La Borde was a fermier-général. She gives three suppers every week—one for the grand seigneurs of the Court, one for the authors, artists, philosophers; a third for a mixed company, entirely devoted to pleasure. She has a country-house at Paulin and a theatre. Princes of the blood go to Paulin as they go to Versailles. She has among her authors Collé, who writes pieces for her theatre, and Carmontelle, who writes proverbs; La Borde composes the music. At the age of twenty-five Guimard led the life of a princess: between her dancing and her suppers, she sometimes visited the poor, she distributed money to the curés. An engraving of the time called "Terpsichore charitable, ou Mlle. Guimard visitant les pauvres," shows her entering a garret where lies an old man; she is followed by a troop of cupids bearing bread, bottles, and soup. Her expenses were so great that she had to take a third protector in the person of the Bishop of Orleans, Mgr. de Tarente, who lived in the coulisses of the academy of dance and of music. (We have his portrait by Gabriel de Saint-Aubin.) She built for herself a hôtel in the quarter which is now called the Chaussée d'Antin and is in the midst of Paris, but which then was almost a desert. The "Temple of Terpsichore," as it was called, was a little palace, a marvel of taste. La Borde saw to all its details. Fragonard was among the decorators, and painted Guimard in the costume of a shepherdess of the Opéra. The house-warming of the Temple was a great event. Two princes of the blood were among the happy few who were admitted to see the "Partie du Chasse de Henri IV.," which was played in the theatre on that great night. She had now two theatres, one at Paulin and one in Paris. Goncourt enters into many details concerning the representations which took place for the amusement of the Guimard and her friends. I confess that I am surprised he should take so much trouble about such trifles. All this light literature of the eighteenth century is like a perfume which has lost its odor; it is very volatile, often very coarse and disgusting.

The Guimard may have been a good dancer, a woman of some wit; she was no better than a common courtesan, and, like all persons of her class, she was occupied only with her quarrels with her rivals. The horizon of such persons is perforce very limited, though they sometimes associate with persons of a high rank; but they reduce these to their own level. The history of the quarrels of the Guimard with other actors and actresses is very tiresome. M. Goncourt is obliged to enter into all the details of this vulgar warfare, for otherwise his book, already very thin, would have been reduced to the proportions of a magazine article. The Guimard was really not a suitable subject for a book; there is nothing in her life to interest the general public. We cannot take much compassion on her when she is ruined in the end. When the ruin came, she had a happy idea: she put her hôtel in a lottery. The following prospectus was printed: "Prospectus of a lottery of the house of Mlle. Guimard which will be drawn publicly, the 1st of May, 1786, in a room of the Hôtel des Menus, Rue Bergère, before a public officer." Then follows a detailed description of the "Temple" and of its furniture. The lottery consisted of 2,500 tickets at 920 livres apiece; there was to be but one winning ticket. The prize was gained by the Comtesse du Lau, who had bought a single ticket; she sold the house soon afterwards to the banker Perregaux at the price of 500,000 francs.

The later years of such persons as the Guimard are generally spent in obscurity. On the 14th of August, 1789, when she was forty-six years old, she married a dancer, Despreaux, who was fifteen years younger than herself. The Revolution soon deprived her of her pensions; she took small lodgings with her husband on the top of the Butte Montmartre, and wrote useless petitions to the Government to get her pension from the Opéra paid. The Empire did not bring back her past opulence; she left Montmartre, however. She died in the Rue Ménars on the 4th of May, 1816, at the age of seventy-four years. Her death passed unnoticed; she had long been forgotten.

Correspondence.

THE PRESIDENT AND HIS KIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A Chicago paper announces that a meeting has been held there of "the Clevelands of Chicago" to take the initial steps towards organizing all the Clevelands of the United States to meet the President at the World's Fair.

As one of the many thousand descendants of Moses Cleveland—the progenitor of the race—who came to this country two hundred and sixty years ago, I wish to enter my protest against the effort, not only as repulsive to good taste, but as laying a needless additional burden on the shoulders of our honored relative who has the misfortune to be President. Surely he has enough to suffer in the penalties inseparable from his office, and his relatives should be the first to seek to alleviate rather than add to the inevitable nuisances attendant upon it.

Family gatherings at best are very equivocal sources of gratification when indiscriminately extended. The weakest and most flatulent members are pretty sure to come to the front, and little opportunity can be afforded for those to find each other out who might really discover such kindred tastes and sympathies as alone make acquaintance desirable or friendship possible. And if such is true of ordinary gatherings, where the members meet on equal terms, how much more emphatically would it be so in this instance, where the predominating influence of one individual would be such that all the rest must perforce appear in the rôle of bobs to the tail of his kite. I have too much respect for him, and too firm a faith in his possession of the most marked traits of the best of his ancestry, to believe it would be agreeable to him.

Eight generations have passed since the advent to this country of the first of the name, and the increase must be many thousand fold. I trust they number among them a reasonable proportion of honest and respectable people. I know they have comprised many truly noble and good men and women; but no one who can look back upon even two or three generations of his ancestry can fail to discover individuals whose intimacy he would not care to seek—and in such a heterogeneous crowd as the ninth generation would present, the claim of brotherhood could hardly exceed that which is due to all our fellow-beings.

I speak for myself alone, having had no opportunity to consult with others, but I am firm in the conviction that the sentiment I have endeavored to express will commend itself to the best representatives of the family as consistent with the hereditary traits of

A Cleveland.

"GOOD CHARACTER AND COMPETENCY" IN CITY GOVERNMENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Secretary Carlisle's determination to enforce the rule of "good character and competency" in the appointment of lighthouse-keepers, on which you recently commented, is one of an increasing number of evidences of the dawn of rational politics. Further evidence to the same effect is furnished by the effort that is now being made to have reason and common sense applied to the administration of municipal affairs in Chicago. A formidable movement, headed by our leading citizens, to effectively protest against "gang rule" and its able exponent, Mr. Carter Harrison, is now on foot. A "citizens' ticket," composed of Republicans and Democrats in equal numbers, has been endorsed by the Republican Convention. The platform pledges the candidates to the merit system of appointments, to the substitution of salaries for fees, adequate compensation to the city for franchises, clean streets, free public baths, parks, libraries, museums, etc.

At a recent mass-meeting held in the interest of this movement, one of the speakers pertinently asked, "What is a city but a business corporation?" and added, "The Mayor we are going to elect is a man who is going to conduct the business of the city on business principles." Mr. Allerton, the candidate for Mayor, said that he did not appear "as a Republican, nor as a Democrat, nor as the exponent of any strictly political party, but as the representative of the good citizens of Chicago, who, whether Democrats or Republicans, desire a clean, pure, economical, liberal administration" of the city's affairs. He further said: "The main object of all parties is to have good government"—a forcible comment, indeed, on the lengths to which partisan madness has driven men, that they should need to be reminded that the only reason for a party's being is "to have good government"!

Another encouraging sign of the times is the fact that the citizens' candidates and the Republican Committee have rejected the assessments levied on the City Hall employees by the present Republican administration, and those who made such "contributions" to the campaign fund may receive them back on application.

This campaign is a matter of much more than local interest. All intending visitors to the World's Fair are personally concerned in Chicago being a place of physical and moral cleanliness, where the atmosphere will not be polluted with soot nor the streets with filth, and where lives and limbs will be safe from the assaults of footpads and "crooks." But the results of this contest will be still more lasting and far-reaching. The election of the non-partisan ticket, and the success and satisfaction that are sure to follow a practical application of the "business principles" theory to city government, will undoubtedly give a tremendous impetus to the cause of municipal reform throughout the land. Although the ultimate triumph of reason in politics is inevita-

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ble—unless our huge American governmental experiment is to prove a dire failure—it is capable of being greatly expedited, and for doing just this the coming election offers a magnificent opportunity.

Of course the combination of World's Fair and civic pride explains the present movement. The growing disgust with "machine" methods was precipitated by a desire to present a fair appearance to visitors during the coming season. If the movement proves successful, Chicago will have contributed an additional reason for the approaching jubilant celebration of American greatness; and the stimulus that such success would give to the cause of municipal reform would be by no means the least among the educational blessings that are expected to flow from the Fair.

S. R. T.

Chicago, March 25, 1893.

THE ANGLO-SAXON SABBATH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In following the very interesting discussion in your columns regarding the Puritan observance of the Sabbath, I noticed that no reference was at any time made to the position of the early English Church with regard to this question. As the matter has been nowhere fully treated, perhaps a few notes at this time will prove of interest to your readers. I shall confine myself to the period before the Conquest.

Both the seventh and the first days of the week were rest-days under the old dispensation (cf. Ex. xii. 16), and the meaning of "Sabbatum" is, therefore, not a little confused in the early English monuments. Of the many examples that present themselves I select a few from the Anglo-Saxon Gospels:

Matt. xii, 8, *τοῦ σαββάτου*, Vulg. Sabbati, Corpus MS. restedaeges, Hatton MS. restesdayges, Lindisfarne Gloss To sunnadae ⁊ to saternes daeg (*waes dhaera Judea sunnadaeg =to Sunday or to Saturday that was the Jewish Sunday.

Mark xv, 42, *παρασκευὴ ὅ ἐστι προσάββατον*, Vulg. Parasceue quod est ante Sabbatum, Corp. Hat. ⁊ is aer saeterdags = the day before Saturday, Rushworth MS. Lind. Gl. ⁊ is fore sunnandaeg=the day before Sunday.

Luke xxiii, 54 *σάββατον ἐπέφασκε*, Vulg. sabbatum illucescebat, Corp. Hat. saeterdaeg onlyhte = Saturday dawned, Rush. Lind. Gl. sunnadaeg inlixade (Rush. -ende) = Sunday dawned.

Luke xxiii, 56, *τὸ μὲν σάββατον*, Vulg. et quidem Sabbato, Corp. Hat. on saeterndaeg (on Saturday), Rush. synnadaeg (Sunday), Lind. Gl. sunnadaeg (Sunday).

In Alfred's Version of Bede's 'Ecclesiastical History,' III., xiv (17), mention is made of "one of the rest-days that is now called Sunday."

This consideration of the regard paid to Sunday as a Jewish Sabbath will prepare us for the discussion to follow. Bede, 'De Temporum Ratione,' c. vi. (Migne, 'Patrologa Latina,' 90, p. 313), directs "that the English Sabbath, like the Jewish, be observed from evening to evening." The Anglo-Saxon laws are the chief testimony to this observance. Cf. Withred, Laws (697 A. D.), Thorpe, p. 17, Schmid, p. 16; Theodore, 'Penitentiale' xvii. sec. 6, Thorpe, 283; xxxviii., sec 8, Thorpe, 298. At a later day the Sabbath rest was extended to include the time between Saturday at none (two P. M.) and Monday's dawn. Cf. Edgar's Laws, II., 5; Schmid, 188; Thorpe, 112; Canute, I., 14; Schmid, 262; Thorpe, 157. What was the reason for this change? Lingard tells us ('Hist. Anglo-Saxon Church,' ed 1845, vol i., p. 341), "At a later period, some time before the reign of Edgar, though probably no change had taken place in the ecclesiastical computation, the freedom of the Sunday was enlarged in favor of the working population." This could be debated; but there is another question of more interest to us at this time. Why did Sunday receive honor in the Anglo-Saxon Church? Two answers are ready from Anglo-Saxon churchmen:

(1.) Aelfric, whose conservatism is well known, holds to the teaching of the Fathers (Thorpe's Homilies, II., 206-30). "Saturday was called rest-day until Christ's passion. On that day Christ's body lay in the tomb, and he arose from death on Sunday, and this day is the day of rest to all Christian men, and holy, on account of Christ's resurrection. We must ever celebrate this day with spiritual honor, etc."

(2.) There were, however, other churchmen at this period who were not unaffected by the theories that had filtered into the Church a few centuries before. One of these was the strong advocate of the Sunday observance in the collection of homilies classed under the name of Wulfstan (Napier, Berlin, 1883). He agrees, of course, with the views of Aelfric (XLIV., 222, 28), but to him the Lord's resurrection was not the only thing that made Sunday a rest-day. The catalogue of Scriptural events that he gives shows the blending of the Jewish Sabbath with the rest-day of the new dispensation. XLIII., 210, 10: "On this day (sunnandaeg) was Adam, the first man, created, and on this day Moses and his troop crossed the Red Sea dry-shod. On this day the Lord began to feed the people with manna, the heavenly meat. The Lord said: 'Six days are given to you to labor, but the seventh is the holy rest-day.'" XLIII., 211, 11: "On Sunday was Christ baptized, and on the same day the Spirit descended upon his Apostles."

The Wulfstan homilist had ample reason to be satisfied with the correctness of this observance. Very strong proof is found in the testimony of Nial, the Scotch deacon (Wulfs. xliii., 211, 27), who had enjoyed the exceptional privilege of a five-weeks' visit to Paradise, and had declared, upon his return, "that God was violently opposed to any work between None Saturday and Monday's dawn."

Another homilist of 150 years later had even stronger support (Old English Homilies, iii., A. 20, 80, Morris, 'Early English Specimens'). The Lord is made to say: "Arise now, Paul, arise; I grant rest according to your request from Saturday at None until Monday's dawn even until Doomsday."

Had "H." given his attention to the Anglo-Saxon codes, he would have noticed quite a difference between them and the statutes of later centuries. The laws forbid in many places trading, travelling, hunting, marriage, and executions upon the Lord's Day. We have besides a remarkable bit of evidence from the early eleventh-century 'Colloquy of Aelfric' (Wright-Wülker, 'Vocabularies,' i., 92). The hunter is asked: "Did you hunt to-day?" He replies: "I did not because it is Sunday, but yesterday I hunted."

I could add much to the present material, but enough has been said to show that the Puritan adaptation of the Jewish Sabbath was anticipated on English soil by over five hundred years. Frederick Tupper, Jr.

Johns Hopkins University, March 21, 1893.

A VESPUCIAN FRAUD.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Latin version of the four voyages of Vespucius issued at the St.-Dié press and made by Bassin is in small quarto, and purports to be translated from the French. Ternaux-Compans says there were no books printed at this press except in this small quarto shape. This Latin edition bears in the colophon the emblem of the St.-Dié press. Some copies are dated in May, others in September, 1507, the type being kept standing between the two issues. This Bassin Latin was used by Grynæus in the several editions of his 'Novus Orbis,' and fourteen leaves from his book in the Paris (1532) edition (pp. 135–160) have been made the basis of what is put forward as a unique copy of a wholly unknown edition of the same Latin version, issued on the same day in May, 1507, and in folio form, but with the difference that it professes to be translated from the Spanish. The pagination of these fourteen leaves has been altered by scratching out the original figures and stamping in new figures, with a star before and after the new figure to conceal the traces of the old ones; but the process is discernible by holding the pages to the light. A similar change has been made in the signature marks, m. n. o. being converted to a. b. c.

For a title-page a leaf containing an address to the reader has been taken from some other book (which called Vespucius *Albericus*) and reversed in binding so as to give a blank *recto*, on which a title has been made with the pen. The final leaf, like the title, is of different paper from the body of the book, and is wholly pen-work. The fabricator has left discernible the lead-pencil rulings which guided him in his work; and the cut which is the emblem of the St. Dié press does not correspond in measurements and otherwise to a genuine impression.

Further, this fraudulent book, which is said to have been found in Italy, has been facsimiled in a hundred copies, and the catalogue of a dealer in Milan has been received in this country, offering these facsimiles at a hundred lire. The professed original has been offered to American collectors at 5,000 marks. The fabricated title reads thus:

DE AMERICII [*sic*] VESPVTII NAVIGATIONE AD INSVLAS NOVAS TERRASQVE INCOGNITAS.
AB HISPANA LINGVA AD LATINAM EIVSDEM AVCTORIS PRIMA TRADVCTIO.

It will be perceived that a peculiar interest would attach to the book from such a title, were it genuine. In the first place, it claims that Spanish was the original tongue of the narrative, and that the translation was not made from the French as the quarto issue of the same day from the same press alleges, and yet the Latin is Bassin's version in each case. There is also in the title a tantalizing ambiguity, which raises a doubt if the Latin was not made by Vespucius himself, and thus it would open the question as to the privity of that navigator to the actions of the St.-Dié coterie, by whom the name of Americus was given to the "mundus novus."

Henry Stevens, in the *Athenæum* (London), July 4, 1885, exposed the forgery of a professed unique edition of Cadamosto's voyages made in the same way by taking pp. 1-78 of the Paris (1532) edition of Grynæus, with a forged title and colophon leaf, which was probably the work of the fabricator of the present Vespucius.

Justin Winsor.

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GRASS WIDOW.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: My attention was caught by a letter in the last *Nation*, signed "F. H.," on the subject of the derivation of the term "grass widow," and, though no etymologist, I venture humbly to present this solution of the question.

"F. H." mentions that "in England the term *grass widow* signifies an unmarried woman who has had a child," and says that the Rev. Robert Forby defined the term as meaning "a fair one whose nuptials, not celebrated in a church, were consummated, in pastoral simplicity, on the green turf." Now, it is, I believe, a fact that many English expressions survive in this country which long ago passed out of use in England, and the term "to grass" a woman, meaning "to rape," is one which I have often heard used. So why may not the Rev. Robert Forby's solution of the problem be the correct one after all?

HENRY H. CARTER.

LEWISTON, ME., March 25, 1893.

Notes.

D. APPLETON & CO.'S spring announcements include 'The Gilded Man, and Other Pictures of the Spanish Occupancy of America,' by A. F. Bandelier; 'The United States,' Élisée Reclus's third volume in the North American section of his 'Earth and its Inhabitants'; a 'Guide-Book to Alaska and the Northwest Coast,' by Miss E. R. Scidmore; 'Three Roads to a Commission in the United States Army,' by Lieut. W. P. Burnham; 'General Greene,' by Col. F. V. Greene, and 'General Johnston,' by R. M. Hughes, in the "Great Commanders" series; 'The Story of My Life,' by Georg Ebers; 'Many Intentions,' short stories by Rudyard Kipling; 'The Art of Taking a Wife,' by P. Mantegazza; 'The Simple Adventures of a Mem-sahib,' by Sara Jeannette Duncan; the second volume of Herbert Spencer's 'Principles of Ethics,' and 'The Laws and Properties of Matter,' by R. T. Glazebrook.

Macmillan & Co. will issue in thirteen volumes the Works of the Brontë Sisters, and in two Miss Burney's 'Evelina,' uniform with the charming edition of Jane Austen edited by R. Brimley Johnson; a one-volume edition of Coleridge, uniform with the Tennyson, Wordsworth, Shelley, and Matthew Arnold already issued; in eight volumes, Pepys's Diary, complete for the first time, with the exception of a few unprintable passages, from the transcript bequeathed to Magdalene College, Cambridge, by the late Mynors Bright; 'The English Town in the Fifteenth Century,' by Alice Stopford Green, in two volumes; 'Some Hints on Learning to Draw,' with contemporary illustrations, by G. W. C. Hutchinson; 'The Eloping Angels,' by William Watson; and the following translations: from Goethe, 'Prose Maxims,' by T. Bailey Saunders; from Prof. Cossa, 'Introduction to the Study of Political Economy'; from Prof. Wundt, 'Lectures on Human and Animal Psychology,' by Profs. J. E. Creighton and E. B. Titchener of Cornell University; and from Prof. Zupitza, 'An Old and Middle English Reader,' by Prof. Geo. E. MacLean of the University of Minnesota. Also Mr. William Winter's memorial address on George William Curtis, with a portrait.

The second number of the *Sewanee Review*, the quarterly issued by the University of the South, contains an excellent article on the Rev. Charles Wolfe, who wrote the "Burial of Sir John Moore." We understand that the writer of this, Prof. W. P. Trent, the biographer of William Gilmore Simms, has in hand a careful edition of Wolfe's poems.

The *Bookman* promises many surprises in the new Life of Defoe by Thomas Wright, which will contain not a few unpublished letters, new light on 'Robinson Crusoe,' and fresh facts concerning Defoe's private life.

'Oxford Men and their Colleges,' by Joseph Foster, a supplement to his 'Alumni Oxonienses,' is on the eve of appearing in a volume of 400 pages, containing nearly 100 full-page illustrations from engravings after Turner, etc. Mr. Foster has had the collaboration of numerous Oxford historians for the notices of the several colleges.

A. C. McClurg & Co. have in press 'The Best Letters of William Cowper,' edited by Anna B. McMahan; a large-paper edition of Eugene and Roswell M. Field's 'Echoes from the Sabine Farm'—translations of Horatian lyrics; and 'The Law of Psychic Phenomena,' by Thomson Jay Hudson.

Pietenbring's 'Theology of the Old Testament,' translated by Prof. H. G. Mitchell of the Boston University, is soon to be issued by T. Y. Crowell & Co.

Tait, Sons & Co. announce 'The Last Sentence,' by Maxwell Gray, author of 'The Silence of Dean Maitland'; and Mrs. Oliphant's 'Victorian Age of English Literature,' in two volumes.

The second volume of Mr. James Rodway's 'History of British Guiana' has just been issued from the *Argosy* press, Georgetown, Demerara. Beginning with an account of the occupation by the French in 1782-1783, Mr. Rodway goes on to tell of the downfall of the Dutch West India Company and the consequent changes in the administration of the settlements; next of the capture in 1796 by the British, of the effect of British influence, of the cession to the Dutch in 1802, and of the recapture by the British in 1803 of the colonies, which in 1814 were finally ceded to Great Britain. The work is brought down to the slave insurrection in 1824, of which the author gives a graphic account. The get-up of the volume, in print and binding, maintains the reputation of Mr. James Thomson, the enterprising proprietor of the *Argosy* press. Mr. Rodway is engaged upon the third volume of his History, which will complete the work. He is, we may add, the writer of the bright little 'Handbook to British Guiana,' which, with its wealth of illustrations, has been specially prepared in connection with the colony's exhibit at the World's Fair.

The second volume of David Nutt's edition of Florio's Montaigne (containing the second book of the Essays) presents the same merits and demerits as its predecessor: the merits of the publisher, the demerits of the editor, Mr. George Saintsbury—or shall we say the late editor, since the word *edited* is now dropped from the title-page? No fewer ancient misprints adorn these pages than the previous ones, as if time had rendered them too sacred for the hand of man to touch. *E. g.*, on p. 41, in a charming passage about Amyot's translation of Plutarch's Lives—a passage that ought to be made *easy* to every reader—Florio said (or rather Florio's printer) in 1603, and continues to say in 1893: "We that are in the number of the ignorant had been utterly confounded had not his booke raised us from out the dust of ignorance. God-a-mercy his endeavours we dare not both speak and write: Even Ladies are therewith able to confront Masters of arts." Montaigne said: "Sa mercy, nous osons *à cett' heure* et parler et escrire"—not "not" dare, but *now* dare. On the same page Montaigne uses the phrase "par longue conversation." Florio's printer made this "through a long conversion," and the present editor so reads it. He reads a great many other strange things in Montaigne's book that were never in Montaigne's mind, and consequently these volumes are not very desirable for any one who is not a student of Montaigne, or of English literature in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.

It is singular that there is no one history of English literature at all satisfactory as a text-book. Taine's is too long and labyrinthine, Stopford Brooke's too short, and all others impossible. Especially is this the case when, as in academies, scientific schools, and some of the smaller colleges, it is necessary that the student be also furnished with selections from the works of the more important authors, instead of being turned loose in a well-filled and well-arranged library. The nearest approach to the text-book that will meet such requirements that is not a compound of useless biographical details and inane criticism, and that properly treats the history of literature as a part of general history, is Mr. Henry S. Pancoast's 'Representative English Literature, from Chaucer to Tennyson, selected and supplemented with historical connections' (Henry Holt & Co.). The volume is an octavo of 500 pages, of which about a half consists of skilfully chosen selections. The style is more than respectable, the text accurate, the method excellent. Not even the dullest pupil could study it without feeling the historical and logical continuity of the facts presented to him; and in the hands of skilful teachers in the secondary schools, it may do much towards awakening real interest in literature. It is along the line of teaching which Mr. Pancoast's work suggests that progress must be made.

Prof. McLaughlin's 'Literary Criticism for Students' (Henry Holt & Co.) is a reprint to the extent of some 200 pages of familiar selections from Jonson, Dryden, Addison, Swift, Johnson, and eight well-known critics of this century, including, curiously enough, Mr. R. H. Hutton. The preface seems to us somewhat enigmatic, and the notes which conclude the volume consist largely of mere summaries of the text. Interesting as such selections are, it is hard to see who can be the better for this reprint of them. Literary criticism, as such, cannot be made a subject of study in the secondary schools, nor, except in rare cases, in the first two years at college; and older students would need a text-book of a very different sort.

A droll conception of an editor's duty is exhibited by Mr. George in his 'Select Orations of Daniel Webster' (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.). He has not remarked on the liberties that Webster took with Cicero (pro Flacco 4) in the "Dartmouth College Case" (p. 58), which "the general reader" would not be likely to detect, and he actually does not understand Webster's palpable allusion to Virginia and the "noble James" in the "Bunker Hill Monument," where the orator says, "Nor will our brethren in another and ancient colony forget the place of its first establishment till their river shall cease to flow by it" (p. 122). This, we are told in all seriousness, is a reference to Maryland and Father White and the *Ark* and the *Dove*. We should as soon have expected Ararat and Father Noah, the other ark and the other dove. By the way, the fine description of Columbus in the opening of the same speech is better

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than ninety-nine-hundredths of the poems that have been written on the subject, and might have elicited a line of comment in the year of the Columbian Fair.

A pleasant story of the works and ways of some children during their summer holiday is 'That Mary Ann' by Mrs. Kate Upson Clark (D. Lothrop Co.). Kindness, grammar, and a suspicion of woman's rights form the triple didactic strand which binds together the various incidents, many of which are amusing and all well told. Occasionally the little fishes talk like whales, being not so much grammatical as pedantic, but usually they are natural and generally interesting. Mrs. Clark has succeeded in making of simple materials a readable book quite above the average of children's stories.

The annual report of the Boston Browning Society contains an interesting though not extensive list of titles of works by and about the two Brownings at present in the library of the Society. It is of interest to note that there is a membership of over 200 women and not quite thirty men. Most of the latter, however, are persons of some literary repute, and seem to have held themselves responsible for a large share of the original work done during the year.

The Educational Club of Philadelphia has printed in a neat pamphlet the letters of advice and of welcome it received from well-known men throughout the country. These letters are of very varying value. The most interesting—and the one which most clearly reveals the need of an educational club in Philadelphia—is from Mr. Henry Carey Baird, who thanks God that he never went to college, and who boasts of a strong feeling against institutions of learning, principally because they teach "so much bad political economy—a thing so vicious that to it can be clearly traced the late rebellion, which, I am firmly convinced, would never have taken place had there been no colleges in the land."

The current Proceedings of the American Philosophical Society contains a paper by Dr. Elliott Coues describing minutely the original MS. journals and field note-books of Lewis and Clark, which he has arranged, continuously numbered, paginated, and indexed in the course of his consultation of them while editing a new edition of Biddle's 'History of the Expedition.' Thirteen bound volumes are in the handwriting of the two explorers, which was so good, though different in character, "that there is perhaps not a word, possibly not a letter, in the whole of these manuscripts not now distinctly legible." Dr. Coues bestows the highest praise on Biddle's labors as an editor of these materials, and explains the extreme meagreness of the natural-history notes by showing the intention to have them separately worked up and published by Dr. B. S. Barton, who died soon after the History appeared.

A 'Catalogue of the Collections of the Bostonian Society in the Memorial Halls of the Old State-house,' just edited by the Society's clerk, Mr. Samuel Arthur Bent, is a pamphlet of 91 pages octavo, embracing 1,082 numbers exclusive of perhaps a third as many objects in special cases or portfolios, and a large quantity of programmes, bills of fare, tickets of admission, orders of exercises, and the like mounted for binding but not enumerated. By far the greater part of this priceless exhibition relates to and is illustrative of Boston, her topography, growth in area, and changes in laying out and in grade, succession of buildings, devastations by fire, and history, in both its local and its national aspect. It is seldom that any object creeps in so foreign as a fragment of the old Roman wall of Britain, nor should such intruders be welcomed to a limited space where even Bostonian relics press upon the accommodations for the literary and pictorial souvenirs of greater worth. A separate historical museum may ultimately arise to meet the exigencies of accumulation. The portraits are numerous, and those of Bostonians proper form an imposing array of great citizens. In the smaller pieces, such as the civil and military commissions, deeds, broadsides, caucus lists, autograph letters, etc., the antiquarian and historian have a rich field of exploration and storehouse of illustration.

Another preservative institution in Boston is the (State) Commission of Public Records, which has been reëstablished after a singular legislative lapse with regard to its maintenance. Commissioner Swan's fifth report on the custody and condition of the public records exhibits anew the qualities which bespeak fitness for his post. We can only mention here its list, supplementary to that of the first report, which shows the extent to which the Commission has aided in the recovery of lost or mislaid, and the rescue of perishing, records of towns, courts, and vital statistics. In Boston alone have turned up three thousand indentures binding apprentices filed with the town clerk from November 27, 1734, to 1805. These bear the signature of the Selectmen of Boston, are of great historical and genealogical value, and will undoubtedly be published by the Boston Record Commissioners. We have more than once remarked on the utility of these reports of Mr. Swan to States, counties, and towns outside of Massachusetts to which the preservation of records is of importance; and what community is to be excepted? So we again notice his exhibition of the excessive and impossible requirements of town clerks annually made by heedless legislatures. Mr. Swan enumerates *seventeen* added to the clerk's load by last year's Legislature in Massachusetts, besides three new penalties for neglect!

House Document No. 150 of the Massachusetts General Court is a substantial volume of 147 pages, illustrated with thirty-one plates and fourteen maps and diagrams. It is the Report of the Board of the Metropolitan Park Commissioners created last summer, and discusses in a broad way the need for open spaces (great and small), hill and pond and river and forest preserves, and access to the seashore, of the metropolitan district, viz., the territory within a radius of eleven miles from the Boston State-house. A large colored map of this district, on the scale of an inch to a mile, accompanies the reports of the Board's Secretary, Mr. Sylvester Baxter, and landscape architect, Mr. Charles Eliot, and shows the existing parks, pleasure-grounds, and connecting boulevards, and the suggested acquisitions. Four acts in aid of the proposed measures are recommended to the Legislature, and we anticipate their adoption. They are in line with the sewage measures already applied to the district, and have the most necessary relation to the water supply and general sanitary condition of the twelve cities and twenty-four towns grouped together by the Commissioners, as well as to the recreation of the 900,000 inhabitants. We commend this report to all legislators and to all public-spirited citizens of metropolitan districts the land over. It ought to be epoch-making.

Announcement is made in a recent number of the *National Geographic Magazine* that the National Geographic Society of Washington offers a gold medal for the best geographical essay written by a scholar in a public high school of the United States, and a certificate of efficiency to the best essayist of each State. The subjects of the essays will be within the continent of North America. The essays must be composed entirely by the scholar, and must not exceed 2,500 words in length. It is planned that the essays from each State shall be submitted to the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, who shall select the best three; these will be forwarded to Washington, where a committee of the Society will choose the best essay for each State and for the United States. In order to extend the usefulness of this project, the Society solicits gifts for medals or scholarships; and of these two means of encouraging study, we would emphasize the latter as by far the better.

Three additional folios of the Geologic Atlas of the United States, similar to the Chattanooga folio, of which we gave editorial description a month ago, have now been issued. One includes Lassen Peak, in Northern California, with text and geological map by J. S. Diller. Special illustrations are given of the Cinder cone, northeast of the Peak, one of the youngest volcanic eruptions in the country. A second folio contains the Sacramento, Cal., sheet, with a page of general outlines of the geology of the gold belt of the Sierra foot-hills, and with a special descriptive text and geological map by W. Lindgren. The third folio includes the Hawley sheet of Northwest Massachusetts, with general and local text, as well as geological map, by Prof. B. K. Emerson of Amherst College. Other folios will soon be issued.

The "De Vries portrait" of Washington is now in the market at the price of one thousand Dutch guilders (Frederick Muller & Co., 10 Doelenstraat, Amsterdam). The "discovery" of this oil painting, signed by the artist "C. Polk pinx. 1793," was one of the interesting results of the trip of the Holland Society to the fatherland in 1888. The Rev. J. H. Suydam, D.D., of Rhinebeck, N. Y., described it in the Year-Book of the Holland Society for 1888–1889. A copy of the portrait is in the Society's Year-Book for 1890. The owner of the painting, Mr. De Vries, senior, of Arnheim, who died in 1892, stated that the painting was presented by Washington himself, the gift being accompanied by an autograph letter, to Mr. Claas Taan, the owner's ancestor. Unfortunately this autograph letter has been lost, but the other documents concerning the picture, the first owner's will, declaration before the notary, correspondence, etc., are at the disposal of the purchaser. Claas Taan was one of those enterprising Hollanders who were prompt to sympathize with the American colonies. Running the blockade maintained by the British cruisers during the Revolution, he brought provisions into Baltimore at a critical juncture. He afterwards held property in Baltimore, and it is evident that Washington appreciated the Dutchman's enterprise very much as he did that of his more famous countryman, Prof. Luzac of Leyden, to whom he also sent an autograph letter of thanks, accompanying it with the gift of his camp-stool used during the war of Independence. Charles Peale Polk, as Tuckerman's 'Book of the Artists' (p. 45) informs us, passed a year or two in America, and several portraits of Washington bear his signature, one of which belonged to the estate of Arthur Lee. Some American institution or society should possess this picture.

—Sir William Anson's treatise on 'Parliament,' forming the first volume of his 'Law

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and Custom of the [English] Constitution' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan), and appearing first in 1886, has deservedly reached a second edition. It is written with refreshing brightness and clearness, in that easy but not undignified conversational style which characterizes the best Oxford lectures. Addressing himself primarily to students of law, Sir William Anson endeavors to limit his range to the existing law and practice, introducing only "so much of history as is necessary to explain how they have come to be what they are," while he discusses general questions less and enters into detail more than Professor Dicey. Considering the struggle that is now going on in France and elsewhere between opposing tendencies—towards presidential government on the one side and towards cabinet government on the other—it seems a pity that the author has not occasionally placed himself at the point of view of the intelligent foreigner and explained some things which he takes for granted—for instance, the existence of two great parties. It may be remarked, however, that the more rabid American-Irish critics of Mr. Gladstone's Home-Rule Bill will find here an explanation of the practical meaning of several of the clauses they have failed to understand, and especially that concerning money grants. Fortunately for the general reader, Sir William Anson does not confine himself so rigidly to the exposition of facts as his preface leads one to expect, but enlivens his pages with more than one expression of opinion worth listening to on Proportional Representation and other proposals.

—In a short monograph, as well conceived as it is close compacted with historical facts and authorities, Mr. Caleb William Loring of Boston has subjected to a new discussion the perennial question whether, under the Constitution, a permanent National Union or a dissoluble league was established by the United States. The full title of his treatise is 'Nullification, Secession, Webster's Argument, and the Kentucky and Virginia Resolutions, considered in reference to the Constitution and historically' (G. P. Putnam's Sons). The author has been incited to this reinvestigation by an intimation of Mr. Cabot Lodge, in his 'Life of Webster,' to the effect that Hayne, in his famous controversy with the Massachusetts statesman, had the better of the argument, however much he may have been worsted in the trial of oratory. Mr. Lodge, it will be remembered, adventures the bold statement that "when the Constitution was adopted, it is safe to say that there was not a man in the country, from Washington and Hamilton on the one side to George Clinton and George Mason on the other, who regarded the new system as anything but an experiment entered upon by the States, and from which each and every State had the right peaceably to withdraw—a right which was very likely to be exercised." Mr. Loring does not find it difficult to explode this astonishing assertion. Conceding that the Constitution, regarded in the mode of its adoption, represents a "compact" among the States and the people adopting it, he contends, with Madison, that the States and people under it made themselves into a perpetual, indissoluble union; that this was the understanding at the time it was ratified; that this understanding came again and again into formal expression; that it was this understanding which gave its vehemence and energy to the debate waged over the ratification of the instrument; that the Virginia "Resolutions of '98," so far from traversing this understanding, do but confirm it when those resolutions are rightly interpreted; that the Kentucky "Resolutions of '98," though asserting, as originally drawn by Jefferson, an absurd right of "nullification," reduced that alleged right to the form of a "solemn protest"; and that, consequently, the doctrine of nullification and secession, as read between the lines of the Constitution at a later day, is as unhistorical as it is illogical in theory and anarchical in tendency. This whole inquiry has a profound moral significance in the eyes of the writer, because he is unwilling that anybody should even tacitly rest in the pagan maxim that what was once a right under the Constitution may have been made impracticable by force.

—Much as has been done by Marshall, Moor, Forby, Spurdens, Nall, and many occasional note-takers towards registering and elucidating the dialect of East Anglia, the subject is by no means yet exhausted. Of this fact a conclusive illustration has recently been furnished. On the last day of 1892, a discussion of East Anglianisms was initiated in the columns of the *Eastern Daily Press*, published at Norwich, and was kept up with surprising spirit, chiefly in letters, for nearly two months. These letters were contributed by no fewer than ninety-five persons, among whom were not only gentlemen and clergymen, but farmers and laborers. Some of them are trifling enough certainly, while others are of genuine value, and bring to light peculiarities of expression hitherto unrecorded. In the course of them are specified not far from five hundred words and phrases, of which a considerable number are etymologized or otherwise explained satisfactorily. Though the circumstance hardly calls for remark, the bulk of the various contributions would be reduced at least a fourth part by eliminating repetitions and irrelevancies; the authors of many of them, by reason of unacquaintance with literature, or from unfamiliarity with English as spoken elsewhere than in their own neighborhood, having often mistaken as dialectal what is common to a large tract of Great Britain, if not to its entire extent. The letters in question, prefaced and preluded by Mr. Cozens-Hardy, have been collected into a pamphlet entitled 'Broad Norfolk,' issued by the Norfolk News Company, Norwich, at the inviting price of sixpence. An uncommonly good sixpennyworth the purchaser has in it, too. Almost every page of it will reveal to New Englanders the birthplace of dozens of the oddities of speech and pronunciation which distinguish them from other Americans. Except for the unrepublican "master," how, as to one every here and there, his heart must warm towards the gusty home of his Puritan forefathers, to hear, if only on paper, from his five-and-twentieth East Anglian cousin, "My master du say, if I du as I oughter du, I shouldn't du as I du du"! "I am like St. Paul," again confesses the humble cousin aforesaid. "What I oughter du I don't du; and what I du du I don't ought." As to this far-off kinsman's *don't ought*, which the vulgar use all England over, it is not perceptibly improved on in the Yankee's *hadn't ought*.

—The controversy for supremacy which for some years agitated Chicago and St. Louis, and still draws a dividing line between Minneapolis and St. Paul, has in shape been transferred to Seattle and Tacoma, in the State of Washington; but in this case public feeling seems to be aroused less over population and business interests than over the simple name of a mountain—Tacoma or Mt. Rainier, the most symmetrical and perfect in outline of all the giant summits of the United States. With an estimated elevation of 14,444 feet, it overtops by two feet the famous Shasta Butte of California, and falls by but a few hundred feet below the crowning elevation of the national domain (exclusive of Alaska). There is a measure of truth in a recent utterance (February 6) made before the Tacoma Academy of Science, that it "is the most famous mountain peak in our country; celebrated the globe over for its simple grandeur, it behooves our people to protect it, and the park around it, jealously and with sleepless vigilance." The protection proposed at the present time is that of "officially" announcing a name, and, naturally enough, for the residents of Tacoma the name of their own town presents itself with special appropriateness and is endorsed to the Academy of Science for official legislation. At a largely attended meeting of this body—about 120 persons being present, including delegations from the Puyallup, Nesqually, and Klickitat tribes of Indians—much testimony was presented bearing upon the true or original name of the mountain, which, by a majority evidence, would appear to have been Takh'oma or Takh'obet (Tacobet), meaning, as variously interpreted by different authorities, 'the mountain,' 'the snow-mountain,' 'rumbling noise or sound,' 'nourishing breast,' 'the gods,' 'friend at first sight,' and (the possible Nahuatl interpretation) 'the place from which you get coal.' Vancouver's name of Rainier (Regnier) is ardently contended for by the inhabitants of Seattle, and has already largely crept into geographical literature. The National Board of Revision of Geographical Names will have here a delicate situation to deal with.

—Protestant missions in China can hardly be said to be successful, if indeed they are not, as some observers hold, absolutely losing ground. They have been established for half a century, and there are now more than 1,300 foreign laborers in the field, and yet their converts number but 37,000, and the hatred felt for them by all classes is apparently stronger than ever. The principal reasons for this seeming failure are given very clearly and dispassionately by a writer in the London *Times* while discussing the difficulties of the diplomatic relations of China with the Powers. Among these are the implacable hostility shown by the missionaries, with rare exceptions, to the native religions and ethics, especially to their ancestor worship, and the more or less conflicting and confusing rites and teachings of the numerous "polyonymous" societies and sects. "The missionaries," says this writer, "have not agreed among themselves as to the Chinese word to express the single Deity whom they preach, and for whom the Jesuits, the Americans, and the English have each coined or employ a different title, with the result of complete bewilderment to the native understanding." These teachers, in addition, come uninvited and against the desire of the people, and are in reality only maintained by force; the little congregations, formed here and there, being feared by many thoughtful Chinese as the beginnings of a "secret society, hostile to the commonwealth, of damage and detriment to the State." Nor is this fear without reason, when it is remembered that "the Taiping rebellion, by which over 20,000,000 of her people perished, was in its inception a Christian movement, led by a Christian convert, and projected to Christianize his countrymen." The

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writer advocates a closer supervision by the embassies over missionaries, a more careful selection by the societies of their employees, the restriction within the narrowest limits of orphanages and sisterhoods, and deprecates especially the employment of young unmarried foreign girls, whose presence in China is a real detriment to the cause which they serve.

—G. Kruell's new portrait of Gen. Sherman may well be rated the greatest work of this artist and the highest achievement in wood-engraving. One naturally compares it with the masterly Grant in the same series, and it is most instructive to observe how the technical treatment adapts itself to the character in each case. In Grant we have sheer weight, endurance, tenacity, almost stolidity, completely expressed; in Sherman's seamed and weather-beaten face, which looks directly at us, we have the nervous organization, the keen and alert intelligence, the firmness, and the poise, never so perfect as in the heat of battle, rendered with a vital consistency. Every inch of the block testifies to the artist's ripened command of the qualities which made his Lincoln, Grant, and Webster in particular such remarkable performances; and in none has the breadth of treatment which we associate with the brush been more conspicuous. A work which we know to have been based on a photograph from life seems to be a translation of a canvas into black-and-white, and forcibly suggests the painter-etcher. Both the grand manner of this engraving of Sherman and the stamp of the great captain in the man himself entitle the portrait to a place in the choicest gallery of art or fame. Mr. Kruell's address is East Orange, New Jersey. The portrait may be seen at F. Keppel's, 20 East Sixteenth Street, New York.

COMPLEX STATES.

Staatenbund und Bundesstaat: Untersuchungen über die Praxis und das Recht der modernen Bünde. Von J. B. Westerkamp. Leipzig: F. A. Brockhaus. 1892.

THE main title which the learned author has chosen for his book is too indefinite to be quite satisfactory, and the sub-title is to some extent misleading. The (objectionable) word "modern" with him means not merely "of our time," as one would naturally suppose; even the Middle Ages come in for a little share. The reader, therefore, gets considerably more than he is likely to expect. On the other hand, the definite article "der" implies that all the complex States of modern times receive some attention. Such is, however, not the case. Some are omitted entirely, partly because the author did not deem them of sufficient importance, and partly because he could not procure the necessary materials. For the same reasons a number of others fare but little better. They are so summarily treated that, as to them, the word "Untersuchungen" is unquestionably too pretentious. Now and then one is almost tempted to ask whether it was at all worth while to say what is said if the author either would or could say no more.

We lay no great stress upon these criticisms. They are of a formal character and do not affect in the least the author's main purpose. This deserves the commendation of all publicists, and, in spite of many exceptions which must be taken as to details, it has so far been attained that the book, though very far from being a great work, is a valuable contribution to the literature of political science. This main purpose is to determine the distinctive political nature of the "Staatenbund" and the "Bundesstaat," not by theorizing, abstract reasoning, but by comparing the law and the practice of the complex States which theory and practice have assigned to the two different classes. The results of this comparison are summed up in the third part (pp. 450-512). That the author does not settle the hotly argued question beyond the possibility of further controversy need not be affirmed. But though the goal may never be reached, the road he has taken is the right one, and even those who do not share his views will have to admit that his assertions are highly suggestive and cannot be disposed of in an off-hand way. Here we can mention only that he looks for the "characteristic difference" to "the mode of changing the federal constitution and to its guaranties," which, in the "Bundesstaat" must be of such a character that "self-sufficiency" is secured to the federation. Prof. Westerkamp does not claim the merit of novelty for his theory. He frankly states (p. 468) that he has "in the main" taken it from the 'Federalist.' The number of quotations from this "admirable" work of "the great jurists and statesmen, Alexander Hamilton, James Madison, and John Jay," bears witness to the high estimation in which he holds it. It is, in his opinion, evidently *facile princeps* among all treatises of its character. And his admiration for the political instrument commented upon is fully as great as that for the commentary and the commentators. His German readers are told, in so many words, that the Constitution of the German Empire falls considerably short of the Constitution of the United States, and between the lines of the whole book is to be read as plainly as if it were printed in black letters, that the latter is by far the nearest approach that has been made, and perhaps ever will be made, to the ideal governmental system for a complex State.

That the Constitution of the United States is printed in full in the appendix is, therefore, not surprising. Why the Articles of Confederation are made to share this honor is not equally apparent. The author, as little as anybody else, considers them a model Constitution, and they are neither less accessible nor more important and instructive than several of the other constitutions, not one of which is deemed worthy of being submitted in full to the reader's examination. The space allotted to them could have been made better use of—for instance, by a brief notice of the Confederate States, which have, after all, held too prominent a place in history to be entirely overlooked in a work treating of the "moderne Bünde." The few important features in which their Constitution differed from that of the United States deserved to be pointed out; and, above all, some remarks on the pretended right of secession were rendered indispensable by the rule which the author has laid down for himself, for the United States have, neither in theory nor in practice, *always* and *universally* been acknowledged to be a "Bundesstaat." It is true, in a foot-note on p. 137, the author promises to treat the question of nullification and secession, but he seems afterwards to have forgotten all about it. We have at least, in reading the book from beginning to end, not noticed the fulfilment of the promise, and, in searching once more expressly for it, have failed to find anything. The index contains neither of the two words. Perhaps the explanation of this rather astonishing forgetfulness is partly to be found in the fact that Prof. Westerkamp's conception of the constitutional history and import of the civil war is—to put it mildly—rather hazy. According to him (p. 489), "the question at issue in it was whether a great and important part of the North American Continent should belong to freedom or negro slavery." If this erroneous statement could be attributed only to looseness of expression, one might pass it over. But it is indicative of a serious defect in the author's scholarly outfit for the work he has undertaken. Even as a jurist his studies do not go—apart from European countries—to the depth we should have expected of a German professor. In the list of books to which he acknowledges himself indebted, the United States do not make a very formidable show, and with regard to Mexico, the Argentine Republic, and Canada (not even Bourinot), his literary resources have been more than scant; while Australia, though it has a place assigned in the text, is not represented at all in his list. And if he has been satisfied to work, as to the Western Hemisphere, with a too poorly stocked law library, he has almost entirely dispensed with an historical library. Bancroft's 'History of the Formation of the Constitution of the United States' and Greeley's 'American Conflict' are his whole stock in trade.

A publicist, however, who lacks a broad and solid historical foundation, cannot help tripping and falling. Prof. Westerkamp does not seem to realize that fully, and he has paid the penalty. Two illustrations will suffice. On p. 117, Mr. Calvo's assertion is quoted, that the Constitution of the United States "sprang from the union of different States, which had existed as independent States and could have continued to exist separately." As the author does not make any comment whatever, one must infer that he does not think this opinion open to any objection. And on p. 494 he energetically champions, against Mr. Bryce—and, for that matter, all competent Americans—Gladstone's oft-quoted sentence, declaring the Constitution "the most wonderful work ever struck off at a given time by the brain and purpose of man." He has evidently no idea that the degree of originality attaching to the Constitution has been the subject of critical historical examination, with which one must be acquainted if one claims the right to enter the lists in this controversy. The inadequate treatment of the fundamental question of sovereignty is, in part, also due to deficient historical knowledge. The principal reason of it, however, is not that the author is too little of an historian, but that he is not thorough enough, and too rash as a jurist. He is a keen dialectician. His eye is sure to detect a joint in the adversary's armor, and he thrusts his blade with telling force into it. Especially Laband is handled roughly and comes always second best out of the scuffle. But Prof. Westerkamp's constructive power is greatly inferior to his critical acumen. By failing to give his definition of sovereignty, he envelops himself in the haze which so often renders the most learned discussions of this knottiest of all the theoretical problems confronting the publicist exasperating and utterly barren. "Staatsgewalt" and "Souveränetät," "United States" and "Government of the United States," are promiscuously used as identical terms. The inevitable consequence is, that we are completely at sea, floundering this way and that way, but gradually drifting towards a genuine Newfoundland fog, which closes around us on p. 134 in the assertion that the controversy in the United States was, "which of these two *governments* (State or national) was sovereign."

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As his own reflection has not revealed to him the difference between Union and Federal government, State and State government, it is hardly surprising that the utterances of others, bearing on these points, are read with half-closed eyes. Cooley is quoted by him in support of his views, but he does not understand the Judge. He does not notice that Cooley does not speak of a "division of *sovereignty*," but of a "division of the *powers* of sovereignty," because to our author that is a distinction without a difference. Nor has he quite understood Jameson's position, overlooking, besides, that the Judge, in the fourth edition of his work, which appeared in 1887, expressly declares, on p. 656, that Von Holst's criticism has induced him to drop the word "quasi-sovereign," which he (Westerkamp) still attributes to him in 1892. If he had read p. 22 of Cooley's 'General Principles of Constitutional Law,' he might have come to see that the gulf between the opinions of the two learned judges is nothing like so wide and so deep as he seems to suppose. But this work of Cooley's is one of the many books that are not in the author's library. It is a pity, for, so far as one can learn from his treatise, his other reading has not made him acquainted with the rather important fact which is thus stated by Cooley (p. 23): "In America the leading principle of constitutional liberty has from the first been that the sovereignty reposed in the people." As there is no allusion to this, it cannot be wondered at that the preamble of the Constitution is not deemed worthy of the least consideration; it is mentioned but once in an indifferent sentence quite at the end of the book. Though the admiration of Prof. Westerkamp for their Constitution is all the most fastidious Americans can demand, the treatment it receives at his hands is not in all respects exactly what one would wish. But, in spite of this and other defects, American and other students of comparative constitutional law will find the book worth its price.

THE ROYAL NAVY OF FRANCE.

La Marine Royale en 1789. Par Maurice Loir, Lieutenant de Vaisseau. Paris: A. Colin & Cie. 1892.

THIS interesting work takes its place as a companion volume with Albert Duruy's 'Armée Royale en 1789,' treating as it does of the state of the French Navy under the monarchy upon the eve of the Revolution. The author does not, however, confine himself strictly to the limits of the year 1789, but gives, wherever he considers it necessary, an account of various matters, occurring during the reign of Louis XVI., which caused the royal navy to be what it was, in composition, administration, spirit, and discipline, when, in that and the following year, it was overtaken and overwhelmed by the turbulent forces of the French Revolution.

The first chapter is devoted to a review of the effective force of the several European navies in 1789; France being then, in the number of her vessels, the second naval Power in Europe and the world, exceeded only then, as now, by Great Britain. In the quality and speed of their vessels, however, the French led all naval Powers. Their constructors and designers especially excelled those of the English navy in scientific acquirements, the results showing in the beauty and strength of the hulls, the weatherly qualities of the ships, and the establishment of that uniformity in the various types so necessary in the sailing and manœuvring of fleets. The superiority of the French models was conceded by the English to such an extent in the wars that followed, that some of the best French ships that were captured served as models for the British constructors. It is a noticeable fact that the life of a French ship varied to a great extent according to the port in which it had been constructed. The ships of Brest, built from the timber of Brittany, lasted little more than ten years, while those of Toulon, built of the woods of Italy and Dauphiny, attained a life of more than thirty years. The French ships were as fortunate in their guns as they were in their gunners, and compared favorably with the English Navy in the size of their ordnance as well as in skill of gunnery.

The officers of the French Navy were drawn at this time almost exclusively from the nobility—not from the "haute noblesse" of the Court, who had no fondness for the sea and the exile from France and the Court which seafaring involved, but from the "petite noblesse" of the provinces, more particularly from the maritime provinces. The great interest the King took in the navy, the creditable showing the French had made along our coast and in the West Indies during our war for independence, not long since ended, and more especially the brilliant success of Suffren in the East Indies, had placed the navy high in the popular favor. After the news of the first success of the French in our war, even the women led in the enthusiasm of the day by adopting a "coiffure à la *Belle Poule*," though later, when De Grasse was defeated and captured in the West Indies, the author says that characteristically "elles avaient ôté le cœur qui ornait leurs croix à la *Jeannette*, pour en faire des croix à la de Grasse, c'est-à-dire sans cœur."

In 1786 a number of excellent changes in the personnel were made by Castries, then Minister of Marine. The principal one relating to the officers was the consolidation of the *grand* and *petit corps* of the navy, the first being constituted as before mentioned, from the noblesse, and the latter from the French East India Company, the merchant service, and from sons of merchants, merchant captains, and "gens vivant noblement." Besides these were found in times previous a small number of officers who interchanged between the army and navy. The Count of Roquefeuil is mentioned as an example, he having served in the cavalry in the intervals between his cruises, and dying finally a vice-admiral. These latter, as well as those who came in from the bourgeoisie, had never been well received by the *grand corps* in past days, and had been subject at times to treatment as intruders.

The great weakness of the French Navy before the Revolution was in the crews of the vessels. The men, with the exception of the seamen gunners, were procured by a system of classification and conscription which was rigorous in its principles, brutal in its application, and life-long as to its duration. It resulted in driving away the seafaring population from the coast regions of France, and causing great hardships for those who remained as well as constant desertions from those afloat. This system of classification, which had been gradually extended over the basins of the larger rivers, eventually included one-fourth of the entire territory of France. To such an extent had the available population for this conscription been reduced that, in the latter years of the monarchy, recourse had to be made to landsmen and soldiers and to foreign seamen from the Mediterranean ports of Italy and the Levant. The great redeeming feature of the seamen of the fleet was the corps of seamen gunners created in 1786 by voluntary enlistment for a term of eight years. Nothing caused greater disaster to the French Navy after the beginning of the Revolution than the dispersion of this body of men, the successors to the "bombardiers" of former years. The curious ground given for the abolition of this body was the danger of class distinctions, and the encouragement of close action and boarding.

The royal navy had its abuses in the pension and honorary lists, as was to be expected, during the reign of Louis XVI. They taxed a treasury already empty, and were paid at the expense of the salaries of the officers and the pay of the seamen and the workmen of the arsenals. The pay of the latter was so constantly in arrear, and their discontent so great, that they were ripe for an uprising at the outbreak of the Revolution, the workmen at Toulon being the first in France to demand and secure the right to wear the tri-colored cockade. The administration of naval affairs on shore was in a sad state in 1789, as was particularly evident from the prolonged delays in auditing accounts and from those ever-present signs of bad administration, a confusion and multiplicity of papers. Then, as now, the greatest amount of detail attended the smallest expenses. It is interesting to read the author's account of the controversy for position between the sea-going surgeons of the medical corps of the navy and the physicians who served on shore at the arsenals and hospitals. One of the latter exclaims against the pretensions of the former class by drawing attention to the great gulf between the practice of medicine and that of surgery. "No power," says he, "could join two sciences with objects so diametrically opposed to each other. Surgery knows only how to destroy; medicine to preserve, reproduce, regenerate."

One of the most entertaining chapters of the book is that giving the traditions and usages of the naval service at the time in question. It has been charged and denied that the discipline of the officers especially was lax. There seems to be good evidence to believe it so, though it comes from other professional writers than the author. Yet he gives an instance of one curious custom between officers and men which could not fail to be subversive of good discipline. When it happened the work on board ship was especially difficult, and the seamen worn out and fatigued, a last effort still being necessary to masthead a topsail or weigh an anchor, the Captain would often cry out, "Charivari!" We give the result in the author's words:

"'Pour qui?' demandait une voix de l'équipage. 'Pour le commandant, qui a une perruque aussi,' répondait une seconde voix; et aussitôt de toutes parts, de toutes les bouches, les plaisanteries, les épigrammes pleuvaient sur le commandant, sur ses habitudes, sur sa sévérité, même sur la vertu de sa femme. C'était un brouhaha insoutenable, où chacun criait et vociférait, s'ingéniant à finir les phrases par un rime en *i*. Cette pluie de quolibets et de lazzis durait jusqu'à ce que la manœuvre fût achevée, et presque toujours elle l'était rapidement, car ce droit à la raillerie, cette autorisation d'irrespectueuses facéties, cette revanche des subordonnés sur les supérieurs, donnaient du cœur aux moins courageux."

Notwithstanding the abuses and defects, the French Navy in 1789 was a fine organization, which went down before the storms of the Revolution; and, unlike the French army, the blows given it were mortal ones. Existing as it did in what has been well termed the prosperous naval era of Louis XVI., it did not emerge from the Revolutionary periods, as did the army of France, to form under Napoleon a military force of a spirit and organization unequalled in the world's history. The magnifi-

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cent successes of the latter only brought out in greater contrast the equally striking failures of the former.

BURDETT'S HOSPITALS OF THE WORLD.

Hospitals and Asylums of the World. Their origin, history, construction, administration, management, and legislation; with plans of the chief medical institutions. By Henry C. Burdett. In four volumes and a portfolio. London: J. & A. Churchill.

THIS is by far the most comprehensive and elaborate treatise upon hospitals of all kinds which has ever been published, and its appearance marks an epoch in the history of hospital aid. Its author, Mr. Burdett, is well known to medical men as the editor of the *Hospital* and of the *Hospital Annual*, and as the author of the best work in existence on cottage hospitals; and he is well known to business men as the secretary of the Share and Loan Department of the London Stock Exchange. In his preface he states that this work has cost him fourteen years' labor and a large amount of money, which we can well believe, for the difficulties in the way of collecting recent plans and accurate data for so many institutions scattered all over the world must have been enormous, and the failure of his first publishers after the publication of the first two volumes must have seriously increased the outlay. His remark that it has been "a labor of love" is almost superfluous. Nothing but deep interest in the matter, combined with great energy, perseverance, and power of inducing others to help, could have produced a work so rich and accurate in detail as this appears to be.

The first volume is devoted to the history and administration of asylums, or hospitals, for the insane. Commencing with the myths of madness found in ancient Greek literature, we find that neglect of the worship of Bacchus was supposed to be a potent cause of insanity—which is just the reverse of modern experience. The first known asylums for the insane were at Jerusalem and at Constantinople about the end of the fifth century A. D. The next chapter deals with the period from 600 to 1750 A. D., characterized by the prevalence of the theories of demoniacal possession, witchcraft, etc., as causes of insanity, and by corresponding cruelty of treatment of many of the unhappy sufferers from this disease. The author extends the period of brutal and cruel treatment of the insane down to 1850, but there were many exceptions to this in the early part of the century. The present methods of caring for the insane in different countries are given at length; a considerable space being allotted to the United States, and special commendation bestowed upon the New York State law of 1890 and the work of the State Commission in Lunacy.

The second volume is devoted to asylum construction, with numerous plans. The plans of modern asylums are very much alike, being of the corridor and the pavilion types. What is called a "model plan" is given, with the claim that it includes all the most important features and provides for classification of the patients. It contains more enclosed courts than would be approved of by American superintendents. Mr. Burdett truly says that it is too much the custom to build an asylum before appointing its superintendent; that the idiosyncrasies of individual superintendents render it undesirable to call in a particular expert and erect a building in accordance with his views when he is to have nothing to do with its management. It is certainly best first to select the superintendent, and then have him advise with the architect from the commencement of the preparation of the plans, and superintend the erection of the buildings from start to finish. The volume concludes with a bibliography of sixty pages in fine type, relating to asylum matters, in one alphabetical series by names of authors. This is convenient for the use of a librarian in checking off a catalogue, but not so for the seeker of information with regard to a particular branch of the extensive subject of the care of the insane. If, for example, one wishes to find the publications relating to lunacy legislation, he has to read sixty pages of fine print and pick them out for himself, whereas the classification should be such that the laws relating to the insane not only come in a separate group, but are still further classified by countries.

The third volume, containing over 900 pages, treats of the origin and history of hospitals, of systems of hospital administration, revenues and expenditures, of hospital Saturday and Sunday funds, nursing systems, dispensaries, and of various special forms of hospitals, including those of the military and naval services. The author's knowledge of the practical problems of finance is well shown in the chapters on hospital revenues and expenditures. He refers to Mr. Goschen's success in reducing the interest on consols from 3 to 2½ per cent., pointing out its effects in producing dissatisfaction among the fund-holders, besides the possible unsatisfactory results in a political point of view, and draws the conclusion that narrow economies are sometimes undesirable, and that they are especially so in hospital finance. We do not see the force of the argument so far as Mr. Goschen's work is concerned, for the comment appears a little like the maxim that "a national debt is a national blessing," and, therefore, that a church debt or an hospital debt may be a good thing also; but it is perfectly true that mere cutting down or objecting to expenditure is no sign in itself of financial wisdom; it depends upon the items.

Taking the sources of revenue of voluntary hospitals as being (1) annual subscriptions; (2) donations; (3) grants from public funds; (4) legacies; (5) invested properties; (6) pay patients; (7) nurses' training-schools, and (8) miscellaneous, the comparisons given between different hospitals as to the relative amounts derived from each of these sources are curious and interesting. The general hospitals in London obtain about 9 per cent. of their income from annual subscriptions, and nearly half of their income from invested funds, while in the provinces, 28.6 per cent. of the income comes from subscriptions, in Scotland nearly 20 per cent., and in Ireland about 17.5 per cent. The proportion of revenue derived from pay patients is only about 2 per cent. in the London General Hospitals, while it is 8.7 per cent. in the provinces. It is noted that large invested funds for hospitals are rarer in America than in Europe, and that the income from pay patients is greater.

Elaborate tables are given showing the average expenditure yearly per bed in different hospitals, and these will be found very interesting by those who are concerned with hospital management. The differences between hospitals in this respect are very great, but it requires an intimate knowledge of the peculiarities of each institution and of the work it is doing to enable one to judge fairly as to whether there has been extravagance or not. Small hospitals, as a rule, involve a greater annual cost per head than large ones; teaching hospitals are more expensive than those in which no instruction is given.

The chapter on nursing systems gives an excellent summary of the various methods of organization of this important branch of hospital work in different countries, and the part relating to the United States, although condensed, is very good. The chapter on the relations of medical schools to hospitals is one of special interest to laymen as well as to physicians, and it is clearly shown that the connection of such a school with a hospital is a most important aid to the charitable work of the latter.

The fourth volume is devoted to hospital construction, and with it is a large atlas of plans of the best modern hospitals of all countries, including, also, plans of convalescent institutions, nurses' homes, and certain medical school buildings drawn to a uniform scale. To hospital architects this part of the work is an indispensable necessity, but, while the information is technical in character, it is presented in a way that will be easily understood by any one who can read floor plans. Mr. Burdett urges that trustees or committees who are charged with the responsibility of hospital construction should begin by employing an expert thoroughly acquainted with hospital administration in its most recent developments, and associate with him a good architect. Neither a committee of physicians nor an architect, nor both of them, are likely to produce as good results as will be obtained by employing a hospital expert in the first place. This encyclopædia of plans appears to include types of the best modern hospitals, and of all these the highest praise is given by the author to an American institution, the Johns Hopkins Hospital in Baltimore, which, he says, "is by far the most complete and perfect set of buildings which have ever been erected for hospital use." The section on hospitals for contagious and infectious diseases, with the plans in the atlas for such institutions, should be of special interest to our municipal authorities at the present time.

The whole work is well printed in good type on good paper, and is neatly and strongly bound. Its publication is specially opportune in view of the fact that the first congress on hospital aid for the sick which has ever been organized is to meet in Chicago in June next, and probably every one who prepares a paper for that meeting will consult these volumes or some of the author's data. We shall be interested in seeing what additions or corrections to this work will be produced at the Chicago Conference. In conclusion, we would advise every public library to secure a copy of the work without unnecessary delay, since the edition is limited to 500 copies.

The Parsifal of Richard Wagner. From the French of Maurice Kufferath. Tait, Sons & Co.

SOME years ago Prof. Kufferath of the Brussels Conservatory undertook to prepare a series of monographs on Wagner's operas and music-dramas. "Lohengrin," "Siegfried," "Walküre," and "Parsifal" have thus far appeared, and it is very much to be hoped that the demand for them will be sufficient to encourage the author in persevering in his task, which he has performed admirably. Prof. Kufferath is erudite without being pedantic, and he has the French literary sense which prevents him from overloading his pages with details interesting only to a few specialists. The fact that, nevertheless, each of his treatises numbers from one hundred to two hundred pages and more, shows

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what a wealth of material for comment there is in Wagner's music-dramas. Imagine any one writing two hundred pages on even such great and famous operas as "Faust," "Carmen," "Don Juan," or "Fidelio," and the difference will be at once apparent. The author gets his material from every imaginable source. In the case of "Lohengrin," the letters to Liszt regarding the first performance of that opera in Weimar form the basis of one of the best chapters, and in each case the author has closely scanned the ten volumes of Wagner's literary works for any pertinent allusion—a process which is now facilitated by the appearance of Glasenapp's 'Wagner-Encyclopädie.'

The only one of Prof. Kufferath's monographs accessible in English is the 'Parsifal,' which has been translated for the Seidl Society in Brooklyn. The table of contents gives some idea of the scope of the book, which in its English edition has no fewer than 300 pages: The Legend, History and Poetry, Perceval, Parzival, The Drama, The Genesis, The Performance, The Score, Conclusion. On page 32 there are some striking remarks on the "extraordinary ignorance of the majority of French writers about the real poetic origin of their literature," ending with the question, "Do you wonder, after this, that, upon the appearance of Wagner's dramas, the critic was found so inadequate and incompetent?" The different versions of the Parsifal legend by various great predecessors of Wagner are compared with his own by one who knows those poems at first hand and not from the histories of literature. The analysis of the score and its leading motives, too, is in a much less dry and schoolmasterly style than such analyses are apt to be, and there are plenty of illustrations in musical type to make every point clear. And instead of making mere general assertions, Prof. Kufferath speaks with the knowledge of a specialist, as, for instance, on page 280, where he points out the evidences of Palestrina's influence on Wagner's last work, in certain austere successions of harmonies, without those connecting notes which are characteristic of modern music.

There are some misprints in the book (*e. g.*, harmonics for harmonies, repeatedly); but on the author's part we have noticed but one error, in the last line of page 204, where he should have written "Tannhäuser" instead of "Lohengrin." The English edition is provided with sixteen illustrations of characters and scenes in "Parsifal." Prof. Kufferath's writings should be in the library of every collector of Wagner books.

The Lost Atlantis, and Other Ethnographic Studies. By Sir Daniel Wilson, LL.D., etc. Macmillan & Co. 8vo, pp. 411. 1892.

THESE eight "monographs, linked together by a slender thread of ethnographic relationship," were published at different times during the author's life, and it was while the volume in which they now appear was going through the press that death put an end to his useful career. This event, sad enough at any time, is doubly so under the present circumstances, for, aside from the loss to the scientific world, it is permitted us to believe that if this volume could have received the author's usual careful revision, some of the shortcomings of which there is reason to complain might have been avoided.

Naturally enough, these papers, being upon different subjects, are of different degrees of merit—"The Lost Atlantis" and "The Vinland of the Northmen" being among the least satisfactory, though this is due not so much to the way in which these matters are treated as to the fact that they belong to a realm in which fancy is often made to do duty for fact. Of the remaining papers, "The Pre-Aryan American Man" and "The Huron Iroquois" are among those in which we are more particularly interested, and in which, we regret to say, there is the most to condemn. That they are largely made up of compilations is a necessity of the case; and, however adequate they may have been when first published, yet times and opinions change, and, judged by the standard of to-day, they will be found to contain statements some of which can hardly be said to be in accord with current opinion, while there are others which cannot be reconciled with each other without allowing a latitude in the use of language that is out of place in a publication of this character. Thus, for example, even if it be admitted, as is claimed, pp. 106–183, that the Moundbuilders are a "vanished race," we do not see how that fact can be made to agree with the "affinity" which is said, pp. 103–270, to exist between them and the Creeks, the Pueblos, and other Indian tribes; or how it can be reconciled with what we are told, pp. 103, 172, 287, about the Allegewi, or, as they are sometimes called, the Tallegwi, a mythical tribe of Moundbuilders who are said to have lived in the Ohio valley at some time in the past, and who, having been driven from there by the Iroquois and Delawares, moved southward and were absorbed by the Cherokees, Creeks, and Choctaws. Of the "geometrical knowledge" displayed by this people in the erection of their mounds and earthworks, it is not necessary to speak, as it is admitted, pp. 106, 168, 272, that they were living in the stone age, and neither mathematical skill nor the existence of an "overruling caste" is compatible with that stage of development. Unquestionably, some of their works are of great size and necessitated a vast amount of patient labor, but in none of them is there evidence of any greater constructive ability than is shown by the beaver and the white ant in building their dams and nests. As has been elsewhere said, squares as large and with angles as perfect as any of those in the Ohio valley can be constructed with the aid of three straight sticks and a moderately good eye; and the circles, even those of a large size, are not beyond the compass of a boy with a string.

These are some of the points upon which there is room for a difference of opinion, but they do not exhaust the list, nor do they indicate the differences in the character of the statements to which we object. Take, for instance, the assertion, pp. 269, 328, that, among our Indians, the cultivation of the fields was left "exclusively" to the women, and the only answer possible is a flat denial, and a reference to Charlevoix, Lafitau, Lawson, Adair, etc., from whom we learn that wherever, east of the Mississippi, corn was grown, the old men and the children, to say nothing of the captives or slaves, always aided in the work. So, also, on p. 142, we are told that the "colored race" now numbers "six millions in the United States alone, the descendants of European and African parentage." This is certainly a startling statement, and possibly it is a slip of the pen; but, assuming that it is a careful estimate of the number of persons of mixed white and negro blood now in this country, we can only say that we should like to see the evidence upon which it is based. But fault-finding is at best a thankless task, and in the present instance it is so peculiarly ungracious that we should have shrunk from it but for the fact that Dr. Wilson's endorsement carries such weight that it is in itself sufficient to give currency to opinions which are, to say the least, of doubtful authenticity.

In conclusion we invite attention to what is said, pp. 64, 248, 267, as to the "approximate correspondence" in the skulls of the Iroquois Indians and the Greenland Eskimo. Both are dolichocephalous, or long-headed; and, as far as the index of breadth is concerned, there is less difference between them than there is between the Iroquois and some of their short-headed Indian neighbors, so that if the shape of the skull is to be taken as an indication of race, we are driven to the conclusion that, instead of being racially distinct, the Iroquois and the Eskimos are "chips from the same block." This is, no doubt, contrary to the received opinion, for Humboldt's dictum as to the difference existing between the Eskimo and the Indian has been slavishly followed, though it has been long known that, so far as this conclusion was based upon a comparison of the skulls, it was without foundation. Instead of there being but one type of skull among our American Indians, and that brachycephalous, or short, as he and Dr. Morton assumed, there are in point of fact three—the long, the short, and the intermediate—just as there are among the different families of the Eskimo; and it depends upon which particular kinds of skull you happen to examine whether you find resemblance or diversity. To this extent, then, these writers were wrong, though it must not be supposed that we intend to assert the reverse of their proposition, and maintain that the Eskimo and the Indian belong to the same stock. So far are we from anything of the kind that, although it may be true, the final settlement of the matter depends upon considerations upon which we have not touched. What, however, we do assert is, that, in view of the existence of tribes with differently shaped heads, scattered about over both North and South America, craniometry, except within certain narrow limits, and then only as confirmatory evidence, cannot be used as a basis for determining questions of race.

Advanced Building Construction: A Manual for Students. By the author of 'Notes on Building Construction.' Longmans, Green & Co. 1892.

WE have here one of the better class of cram-books, and very good of its kind. It is intended to meet the examination in construction of the English Science and Art Department, and therefore describes the English art of building, which in many details, both of terminology and practice, differs from the American; but it is a good account of a system of building most of whose forms and methods are applicable everywhere and are good for every constructor to know. It gives no theory and no formulæ, and only a few introductory maxims of statics, but confines itself to the serviceable properties of materials, and the methods of putting them together for building in timber, iron, brick, and stone. Its timber framing is a generation behind the American practice, retaining the system of wooden king and queen-posts, with their heads clipped between strut and straining-beam—a system that inevitably leads to sagging, and would be intolerable with any kind of timber used here for framing. Its iron framing, on the other hand, is perhaps a wholesome example, the truss-work being entirely of link-and-pin construction, and riveting being reserved for girders. The joiner work, too, is instructive in its thoroughness.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bourget, Paul. The Son (André Cornélis). Waverly Co. 50 cents.
Bowles, Col. John. The Stormy Petrel: An Historical Romance. London: Walter Scott; New York: A. Lovell & Co.
Brooks, E. S. Heroic Happenings Told in Verse and Story. Putnams. $2.
Brown, H. F. Venice: An Historical Sketch of the Republic. London: Percival & Co.; New York: Putnams. $4.50.
Cambridge, Ada. A Little Minx. Appletons.
Campbell, Helen. Some Passages in the Practice of Dr. Martha Scarborough. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Campbell, Lewis. The Oresteia of Æschylus translated into English Prose. London: Methuen & Co.
Cawein, Madison. Red Leaves and Roses. Putnams. $1.25.
Clark, Rev. G. H. Oliver Cromwell. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.25.
Colas, Jules A. The Celestial Handbook. Chicago: Poole Bros. $2.
Colas, Jules A. The Celestial Planisphere. Chicago: Poole Bros. $3.
Cox, Miss Marian Roalfe. Cinderella: Three Hundred and Forty-five Variants. London: David Nutt.
Crawford, F. M. The Novel: What It Is. Macmillan. 75 cents.
Crepaz, Adele. The Emancipation of Women and its Probable Consequences. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $1.
Dana, Mrs. W. S. How to Know the Wild Flowers. Scribners. $1.50.
De Motte, J. B. The Secret of Character-Building. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. $1
Dickens, Charles. American Notes, and Pictures from Italy. Macmillan. $1.
Edwards, Joseph. Differential Calculus for Beginners. Macmillan. $1.10.
Fowler, W. W. The City-State of the Greeks and Romans. Macmillan. $1.10.
Gladden, Rev. Washington. Tools and the Man: Property and Industry under the Christian Law. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Littledale, Prof. Harold. Essays on Lord Tennyson's Idylls of the King. Macmillan. $1.25.
Lombard, Louis. Observations of a Musician. Utica, N. Y.: The Author.
McLaughlin, Prof. E. T. Literary Criticism for Students, selected from English Essays. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Pancoast, H. S. Representative English Literature from Chaucer to Tennyson. Henry Holt & Co. $1.60.
Pool, Miss Maria L. Katharine North. Harpers. $1.25.
Raine, James. York. [Historic Towns.] Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Rainy, Rev. Robert. The Epistle to the Philippians. [Expositor's Bible.] Armstrong. $1.50.
Read, Opie. The Colossus. Chicago: F. J. Schulte & Co. 50 cents.
Rives, Amélie. Athelwold. Harpers. $1.25.
Savage, R. H. The Masked Venus. American News Co. 50 cents.
Schupphaus, O. F. The Plutocrat. A Drama in Five Acts. A. Lovell & Co. $1.
Scott, Sir W. Old Mortality. [Dryburgh Edition.] Macmillan. $1.25.
Sharp, F. C. The Æsthetic Element in Morality. Macmillan. 75 cents.
Tamura, Naomi. The Japanese Bride. Harpers. 50 cents.
Thierry, G. A. The Palimpsest. Cassell. 50 cents.
Thompson, Maurice. The King of Honey Island. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.50.
Watt, J. C. John Inglis, Lord Justice-General of Scotland. Edinburgh: William Green & Sons.
Wheatley, H. B. Literary Blunders. [The Book Lover's Library.] Armstrong. $1.25.
Why the Solid South? Baltimore: R. H. Woodward & Co. 50 cents.

APRIL.

EDUCATIONAL REVIEW.

ARTICLES—Contemporary Educational Thought in Germany, Ernst von Sallwürk; Teaching Elementary Physics, Edwin H. Hall; Reform in Modern Language Instruction, John J. Findlay; Public School Pioneering in New York and Massachusetts: a Final Reply, Andrew S. Draper; International Student Associations, William H. Tolman.

EDUCATION IN FOREIGN PERIODICALS—Life of Otto Salomon, J. S. Thornton.

DISCUSSIONS—The Faculty of Cramming, J. Clark Murray; The "Harvard Report" on the Teaching of English, Samuel Thurber; Admission to College by Certificate, Martin Kellogg, John Tetlow.

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